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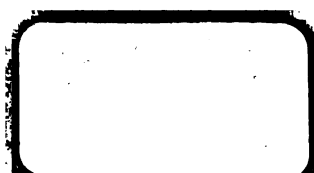
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Presented by
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Colvin
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HISTORICAL LETTERS.

INCLUDING

A BRIEF BUT GENERAL VIEW

OF THE

HISTORY OF THE WORLD,

CIVIL, MILITARY, AND RELIGIOUS,

FROM THE

EARLIEST TIMES TO THE YEAR OF OUR LORD 1820.

BY JOHN B. COLVIN, Esq.

SECOND EDITION.

History is Philosophy, teaching by Example.....*Bol.*

GEORGETOWN, D. C.

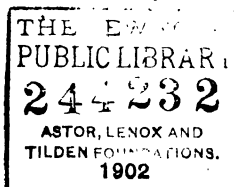
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.....
JACOB GIDEON, JUN. PRINTER, WASHINGTON CITY.

1821.

D-12





DISTRICT OF VIRGINIA, to wit :

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the sixteenth day of November, in the thirty-seventh year of the Independence of the United States of America, SAMUEL PLEASANTS hath deposited in this Office the title of a Book, the right whereof he claims as proprietor, in the words following, to wit :

HISTORICAL LETTERS,

*including a brief but general view of the History of the World, Civil, Military, and Religious, from the earliest times to the year of our Lord, 1811.—“ History is Philosophy, teaching by example.”—Bol.—*In conformity to the act of the Congress of the United States, entitled “An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned,” and also to an act, entitled “An act supplementary to an act, entitled an act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned, and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching, historical and other prints.”

WILLIAM MARSHALL,

Clerk of the District of Virginia.

NOV 16 1899
LIBRARY
NEW YORK

TO THE READER.

The Letters of this small volume were originally published in a newspaper at Richmond, in Virginia, from the columns of which, in the same type, and on ordinary paper, they were reprinted in the form of a Book. A second edition having been required, it is now offered to the public, in an improved typographical dress.

When this work was first published, the author of it, conceiving that a volume of history could not, like a novel, be properly committed to the taste and judgment of the public without the sanction of competent living authorities as to the accuracy of the facts it contained and the manner of its execution, took the liberty of submitting it to some of the first characters in the United States. The question was, in particular, asked with respect to its value as a school book. These gentlemen were so kind as to express their opinions in the following letters; and to them the publisher begs leave to refer with regard to the real merits of the publication.

CHARLESTON, APRIL 19th, 1813.

SIR,

I have received your "Historical Letters," and read them with great pleasure. For this valuable present I beg you to accept my thanks. I have read many compends of general history, but none of them, in my opinion, so much deserves the compliment of *multum in parvo* as yours. With respect to dates and facts, you are correct. It is scarcely possible to give more historical knowledge in an

DUP. EXCHANGE 2 AUG. 1801

LIB. CONG:

equal number of words and pages. I am particularly pleased with your sacred history. Every man who reads his Bible, will be able to read it with much more understanding after having perused your letters. The dress of the work is far inferior to its merit. Every man should wish to know what has been doing in our world before he was born. By reading your book, which he may do in a few days, he may acquire such general knowledge of the great events which have heretofore taken place in it, as will make him feel comparatively at home. Without such knowledge, he must be like a stranger in an unexplored country, with respect to past events, even in the land of his nativity. I wish you great success in the sale, and am with great respect, your most obedient servant,

DAVID RAMSAY.

*J. B. Colvin, esquire,
Washington City.*

RICHMOND, MAY 7th, 1813.

SIR,

I received sometime past a copy of your "Historical Letters," accompanied with a request that I would give my opinion of them. I have read them with attention, and have mentioned in Mr. Pleasants' office my wish to be classed with subscribers. I pray you, sir, to receive my thanks for this mark of politeness and consideration.

In a work comprising the history of the known world, in a small duodecimo, not much more is to be looked for than an accurate chronological index of the great events which have been transmitted to us in detail, presented in such a form as to give a

general idea of the nations which have at different times made a conspicuous figure on our earth, and of the order in which they have succeeded each other. By compressing these events into a narrow compass, the mind may embrace, at one view, all past time ; and it is probable the youthful reader, thus aided in the commencement of his course, may perceive more distinctly, and with less embarrassment, the connexion between the histories of different nations.

Of the value of the plan I cannot speak confidently, although I rather incline to suppose it may be useful ; but to whatever may be its value, your book is, I think, entitled. The events selected appear well calculated to give a correct idea of the general history of each nation, and the narrative is, I believe, faithful. I am sir, respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. MARSHALL.

*J. B. Colvin, esquire,
Washington, Columbia.*

MONTICELLO, APRIL 8th, 1813.

SIR,

I thank you for the historical work you have been so kind as to send me ; but to give the precise opinion on it which you ask, is not very easy. History is one of those branches of science which different persons will pursue to greater or less extent, in proportion to their views and opportunities. Those of higher aims will resort to the original authors, that nothing known to others may be unknown to them. Students to whom this branch will be a necessary, yet secondary, object, will call for

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CONG.

the larger compilers ; while those whose other occupations afford little time or means to indulge their historical appetite, must be contented with the most succinct abridgments. Among these different classes of readers, the scale of the "Historical Letters" will find its place, and will become valuable and instructive in the degree which suits them. It will also be a convenient Manual even to proficients, who often wish to consult shorter works for a refreshment of memory when occasion occurs for taking mere general views. For these purposes, doubtless, the work you sent me will be useful, and its cheapness, as well as brevity, will probably bring it into considerable demand. In wishing it success, I contemplate not only your gratification but the enlargement it may produce in the field of information among our fellow citizens. I tender you the assurance of my esteem and respect.

TH: JEFFERSON.

*Mr. J. B. Colvin,
Washington.*

JAMAICA, L. I. AUGUST 20th, 1814.

SIR,

I have read with satisfaction the small volume of "Historical Letters" you have been good enough to send me. The execution of the work appears to me to be creditable to its author ; and I think the "Historical Letters" entitled to hold a respectable station among the abridgments of general history. With much respect, I am, sir, your obedient servant,

RUFUS KING.

*Mr. J. B. Colvin,
Department of State.*



R. RUSH presents his compliments to Mr. Colvin, and is much indebted to him for his little work upon history. As yet R. R. has only been able to look into it in a general way, but he has seen enough of its plan to discover its utility. Such compends of historical knowledge, where men of parts and industry will undertake them, are not only most acceptable presents to young minds, but highly convenient remembrancers to the more advanced reader. R. R. regards this of Mr. Colvin's as a valuable little volume added to his library, and thanks him for his kindness in sending it.

Washington, March 22d, 1813.

SALEM, MASS. APRIL 11, 1813.

SIR,

I beg to return you my sincere thanks for your acceptable present of the "Historical Letters." Owing to severe indisposition in my family I have not been able to give it an extensive perusal; but as far as a cursory survey would enable me to judge, the work does honor to the diligence, the learning, and the accuracy, of the author. I hope that you may receive sufficient encouragement to make the work profitable to yourself as well as to the public. I am, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JOSEPH STORY.

*John B. Colvin, esquire,
Washington, District Columbia.*

PREFACE DEDICATORY.

TO

MRS. JAMES MADISON.

MADAM,

I DO myself the honor of requesting you to accept the dedication of this small volume of *Historical Letters*, as a proof of the estimation in which I hold your intellectual endowments.

It is, of course, a work of compilation, and not one of invention. History being the narrative of what has transpired in the world, the chief merit derived from writing it consists in a scrupulous adherence to the truth of facts. But, at the same time, although there is no scope in such a performance for the imagination, there is a great deal to interest and occupy the mind ; and to those who have not already made the subjects of it their study, it presents all the charms of the most engaging novelty. The utmost efforts of human genius can pourtray nothing more surprising than the incidents which the annals of the world furnish for our instruction and amusement. The images of fiction shrink before the more substantial forms of real life.

In the pursuits of philosophy, the true mode of proceeding is from particulars to generals ; from the known to the unknown. In the mathematics, too, it is essential that the inculcation of particular rules

should precede the knowledge of universal principles. But it appears to me, that in *history*, where the chief point to be regarded is chronology, where the things to be recited are equally on record, and where the understanding is not to be gradually trained from simple to complex and abstract combinations, it is best, in the first instance, to acquire a *general idea*. By this means we may comprehend, with less difficulty, the references which are necessarily made in the history of one people to the transactions of another; and having traced on our minds an accurate outline of the occurrences of nations, fill up the intervals with the details of particular histories. If the opinion be correct, may I not hope that this little book may become current and useful in society? As a pocket companion, it may prove a valuable remembrancer to those who have already pored over the pages of the writers of antiquity and of modern times, or stimulate such as are only superficially informed to further reading.

No pains of research have been spared to make the work correct: Such topics have been selected from the history of each country as are most interesting; and where there has been nothing in the policy or laws of a community to invite attention, I have dwelt upon geographical, commercial or religious circumstances. Whatever may be the omissions, it may be relied on that what is stated is as authentic as the received authorities can make it. Reflections have been sparingly introduced: They should be rather excited than expressed. Something ought always to be left to exercise the mind of the reader. Of those that do occur, a part of them are original; others have been drawn from Livy, Sallust, and Tacitus; some from Hume, from Robertson, and from Gibbon; and some from French authors, more

especially Le Sage. Advantage has been taken of the lights derivable from the commentators on the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Asiatics, ancient and modern. In relation to America, recourse has been had to all the compilers commonly known and respected in literature; and by comparing them one with another, I have frequently arrived at a degree of accuracy which no single one of them would have enabled me to attain. Prejudice is the great vice of those who have written history, and wherever it could be discerned it has been discarded.

In a performance of this nature, nothing brilliant is to be expected from an author. The histories of past times are built one upon another. Different arrangements of words may rectify or pervert the character of events, but they cannot alter truth. Language is the atmosphere of ideas, and it may be clouded by dulness or purified by perspicuity; yet the narrator of facts who builds his fame on a *mode of expression*, and not on his *veracity*, will find his historical reputation as short lived as the fashion of a prevailing style. The object ought to be so to represent things as to make them appear in their genuine form, easy of perception, and unembarrassed with too much description. Whoever does this best, is the best writer.

These observations have been made to apprise you that no credit is claimed for the literary composition of these Letters. If they are constructed with judgment, and are susceptible of a clear comprehension, my ambition, in that respect, will be gratified.

It is not wished, however, to underrate the beauties of language. It is, nevertheless, in works of rhetoric and of poetry, that they ought chiefly to be employed, and are principally to be admired. On occasions where feeling is not to be excited, it is

dangerous to seek for, and improper to indulge in them. Words are extremely delusive; and that vagueness of expression which is well calculated to agitate the imagination, is quite unsuited to the soberness of plain delineation. When hieroglyphics were abandoned for alphabetical writing, mankind gained, indeed, facility of communication, but they lost much of exactness. The progress of the sciences and arts daily admonishes us of the insufficiency of sounds fixed by letters to give precision to our thoughts, and ought to warn us not to sacrifice clearness of description to harmony of utterance. Geography and architecture glaringly expose the inadequacy of the power of the alphabet.

The brief history of the Christian Church which has been inserted will be edifying. Every thing has been avoided in it that can possibly give offence to any particular sect. It is simply a recitation of facts. Two reasons rendered its insertion indispensable. Modern history cannot be understood without it; and the excellence of our religious system demands that it should, at all suitable opportunities, be made to appear what conflicts it has triumphantly sustained against folly, treachery and power. Piety will, it is believed, be promoted and cherished by a knowledge of the early and severe trials of Christianity.

I have the pleasure to remain,

Madam,

With unfeigned respect,

Your most obedient servant,

THE AUTHOR.

HISTORICAL LETTERS:

LETTER I.

IN a series of Historical Sketches, some account of the antiquity of the Globe we inhabit will, with propriety, occupy the first place. There are different opinions entertained relative to the duration of the world; that is to say, the interval between the creation and our days. This interval, which embraces the whole history of the world, divides itself into two parts; that since Jesus Christ to our time, upon which all the world is agreed; and that subsequent to the creation until Jesus Christ, respecting which men's opinions vary: Meanwhile Holy Writ forms the basis of these opinions, and the different copies of it alone occasion the variation.

The Hebrew text, which is that most generally adopted, reckons, from the creation to Jesus Christ, four thousand and four years, or forty centuries: The Samaritan text, four thousand three hundred and five years, or forty three centuries: The translation of the Seventy, or the Greek text, five thousand two hundred and seventy, or fifty-two centuries.

These variations have given place to different Systems of Chronology, which divide men of learning: And it seems almost impossible to come at the truth.

Divisions of Ancient Profane History.

If, adopting the Hebrew text, we reckon forty centuries from the creation to Jesus Christ, and as there were seventeen centuries from the creation to the deluge altogether unknown to Profane History, it results that there remain but twenty-three centuries, which are commonly divided into three unequal parts, to wit:

1. *The times of uncertainty*, in which is placed the origin of the most ancient nations, embracing

5 Centuries.

2. *Fabulous or Heroic Times*, or the times filled with Mythology, embracing

10 Centuries.

3. *Historical Times*, when history began to obtain some authenticity, which contains

8 Centuries.

C.

LETTER II.

Of the Egyptians.

THE Egyptians are allowed to be the most ancient civilized nation upon the earth: their commencement is unknown to us: in searching into their history we find them at an early period familiar with the arts and sciences, and with every species of human knowledge, which proves a long existing state of society. They are themselves as ignorant as we are of the antiquity of their origin, which they magnify into a duration of twenty thousand years. Their history is as fabulous as their chronology. They represent to us that the gods were their first rulers;

after that, the demi-gods; and subsequently, numberless dynasties and a throng of sovereigns; in which is to be found much of fable, a great deal of obscurity, and very few incidents. They boast, however, of a Sesostris, whose conquests, or, more properly speaking, whose military march (if we could give credit to it) embraced the major part of Asia, and who penetrated to the verge of Europe. Be that as it may, it is at least certain that this is the only time that this people are mentioned as conquerors. Their destiny has uniformly been that of subjugation or submission. We may reduce to three principal points all that is worthy of observation of the numerous details which fill the different volumes that give an account of the Egyptians; that is to say: 1st. The state of their civilization. 2d. The colonies which they founded. 3d. The monuments which they have left behind them.

Civilization of the Egyptians.

The Egyptians lived under a regular government; they were acquainted with the distribution of power into civil, military and religious; they had respectable magistrates, wise laws, established morals, and reigning customs. In a word, they possessed all those branches of order which characterize a state of complete civilization. Many of their laws and customs merit our attention as well as curiosity.

The marvellous period of Egyptian history, that which excites our astonishment and awakens our admiration, either by the wisdom of her laws or the immensity of her monuments, is precisely that which is least known to us, and it would be altogether unavailing to attempt to penetrate it. We do not possess a single literary work of the ancient Egyptians.

All that we know anciently of these people is derived from the Holy Scriptures, or from the Greeks, and chiefly from Herodotus, who saw the objects which he describes, and received those interpretations with respect to their monuments which he has transmitted to us.

About three centuries thereafter, Manetho, an Egyptian, the high priest and guardian of the sacred archives, has given the history of his country, by order of one of the Ptolemies. It is from him that we learn the existence of the thirty dynasties which, according to his calculation, gives to the Egyptian monarchy, computing from its origin to the time of Alexander the Great, a duration of five thousand three hundred years. It is well, however, to observe to the reader, in order to regulate his confidence in the assertions of Manetho, that although high priest, he was not enabled, owing to the many revolutions that had occurred in Egypt, to do more than afford a general interpretation of the hieroglyphics, there remaining at the time he wrote no faithful tradition of the exact sense in which they were originally intended. Moreover, this work has been lost, and we are no otherwise acquainted with it than by those fragments cited by Josephus, the Jewish historian.

Much later still than Manetho, and about the times of Augustus, Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, and Pliny, wrote upon the same subject. The concurrence or disagreement of these different testimonies constitute, and will, most probably, continue to constitute, at all future periods, the sum of our knowledge relative to the primitive Egyptians. In vain the expedition of the French into Egypt, the talents and the zeal of those philosophers who followed in the train of Bonaparte's army, held out the prospect of new discoveries! The labors of the French

institute at Cairo, the travels of M. Denon, the writings of Gen. Andreossi, and those of several other French and Englishmen, have furnished us with a perfect topographical description of the country, and with accurate and curious details with respect to the Egyptian monuments: they have presented us with interesting dissertations, ingenious hypotheses, and, in a word, they have enriched the arts and the sciences; but they have thrown no new light upon the early period of the history of Egypt.

Colonies founded by the Egyptians.

All the world knows that the Greeks, those venerable models of good taste, of arts, and of science, received from the Egyptians the first germs of their knowledge; and, if we may be permitted to believe the plausible theory of M. de Guignes, the Chinese of our day were originally a colony from Egypt. M. de Guignes thinks he has discovered that the sovereigns of China are precisely the same as those of Thebes in the Upper Egypt. He demonstrates a considerable resemblance between the Chinese alphabet and the Egyptian hieroglyphics. Whether the conjectures of this gentleman be true or not, it is certain that he has discovered an extraordinary similitude in the manners, the genius, the morals, and the characters, of these two widely separated nations.

Monuments left by the Egyptians.

These are the pyramids, the obelisks, lake Mœris, the famous labyrinth, &c. &c. In general, all these celebrated works astonish more by their colossal immensity, and the patience possessed by those who erected them, than by their taste and their utility. Some of them are still to be seen. On the road to

Cairo three pyramids are in view, which have resisted the destructive interval of many thousand years. It is said that the largest of these is two thousand six hundred and forty French feet in circumference, and five hundred feet in height, that one hundred thousand men were constantly employed, and that the labor of erection endured for thirty years. The general opinion is, that they were destined to be receptacles for the dead ; but some have imagined that their immense surface was intended to receive and perpetuate, in hieroglyphics, the annals and the learning of this astonishing people. What is remarkable, in a mathematical point of view, is, that the four faces of these pyramids precisely correspond with the four cardinal points, and that they in like manner designate the meridian.

As much uncertainty prevails relative to the period at which these pyramids were constructed as upon the subject of their utility. Herodotus, who was initiated among the priests of Egypt, and to whom we are indebted for all the tokens of Egyptian antiquity which we at this time possess, fixes their construction about the time of the Trojan war ; that is, about one thousand one hundred and ninety-four years before Jesus Christ.

The obelisks are simple monuments of stone, supposed to have been erected in a polished age, before the invention of alphabetical writing, by the kings of Egypt, principally at Thebes and Heliopolis. Several of them were transported to Rome by the emperors ; and the largest of the whole, which is to be seen in our day, was conveyed thither by the orders of Constantius.

The lake Mœris, calculated for greater utility, was formed for the purpose of remedying the too great irregularity of the inundations of the Nile. The

ancients computed that it was two hundred and forty miles or eighty leagues in circumference; but the moderns appear to agree in the opinion that it is not more than sixty miles or twenty leagues. The ancients must have exaggerated, or the lake must have been considerably reduced in its dimensions by the revolutions of nature.

The famous Labyrinth embraced a magnificent congregation of twelve palaces or three hundred halls, which communicated with each other by an almost infinite number of windings and intricate ways. C.

LETTER III.

Egypt—Concluded.

THE ancient Egyptian stock is supposed to be still extant in the Copts, who, as modern travellers tell us, are distinguished by the moral qualities of ignorance, drunkenness, cunning, and finesse. The first period of their degradation was the conquest of Egypt by Cambyzes, an event that occurred five hundred and twenty-five years before Christ. He changed the laws, persecuted the priests, and demolished the temples. The second period is supposed to have been the persecution of Dioclesian, when Christianity had taken deep root in the country. After the death of Cambyzes, Egypt continued under the Persian yoke, until Alexander the great overturned that monarchy and built Alexandria. To him succeeded Ptolemy, the son of Lago, about three hundred and twenty-four years before Christ; and this

B

Ptolemy was followed by ten kings of that name until the time of the accomplished and voluptuous Cleopatra, the sister of the last Ptolemy, when Egypt became a Roman province, and so continued until the reign of Omar, the second caliph of Mahomet's successors, by whom the Romans were driven out after a possession of seven hundred years. When the caliph power declined, Saladine set up the empire of the Mamelouks, who eventually extended their dominion over a great portion of Arabia, Syria, and Africa. A Turkish emperor, of the name of Selim, then conquered Egypt. Ali Bey attempted to wrest it from the Ottomans ; but he was defeated and killed in one thousand seven hundred and seventy three. His adherents, after his death, kept it in a very distracted state, until a compromise took place in 1789. In 1799, it was invaded by the French, who landed at Alexandria, proceeded to Rosetta and Cairo, but were repulsed and arrested in their career at St. John d'Acre, by the intrepidity and skill of Sir Sidney Smith, a British naval officer of great merit.

There can be no doubt but the subjugation and colonization of Egypt has been an object upon which the French government has for many years fixed its most serious attention. Denon informs us that France, for a long period of time, has had it for a natural object of her policy ; the motive of which, he alleges, is to counterbalance, or to endeavor to destroy, the British empire in India. But, in the present condition of France, the attainment of such an object must be very remote.

Besides the Copts, Egypt is at present inhabited by various races of men, of which the Arabs are the most numerous. These latter are divided into three descriptions of persons, namely : The Arab Shepherd, who is lively and of a penetrating phisiognomy ;

The Bedouin Arab, who lives in a state of continual warfare, and is of a savage and ferocious character : And, lastly, the Arab cultivator, the most civilized, the most corrupted, and most degraded of the three. There is, also, the dull and heavy Turk, the wily Greek, the accumulating Jew, whose character is every where the same, and the Barabras, from Nubia and the frontiers of Abyssinia, of a jetty, shining black. The higher classes of Egyptian women have some interesting points of character, but the lower orders are by no means fascinating. Despotism and frequent subjugation have instilled into the minds of the men the most servile principles, and accustomed them to the most abandoned vices ; whilst the jealous notions of their masters have doomed the females to a life of seclusion. As typical of their abject condition, the ass, that dull beast in other countries, seems to exist in the highest perfection in Egypt, and is, comparatively speaking, quite a lively animal. The fruitfulness of Egypt is proverbial—and under proper cultivation it would be a granary for Europe.

C.

LETTER IV.

Of the Phœnicians and Carthagenians.

PHŒNICIA was a sterile country, bordering upon the eastern extremity of the Mediterranean sea. It was there that commerce first took birth. It is said the ancient and famous city of Sidon was the first to cultivate it. This city, in a moment of its greatest splendor, founded the colony of Tyre,

which after a time surpassed the parent state. Tyre, erected upon the same continent, and at no great distance from Sidon, became the arbiter of commerce and the mistress of the sea, when it was besieged by the kings of Assyria. One of these was Nebuchadonosor, so famous in holy writ. This prince besieged, took, and totally destroyed it. The inhabitants, however, were not extirpated; but escaping from the ruins of their city, erected a new one on a little island, at a small distance from their former situation. This celebrated city, become a second time the sovereign of the seas and a mart for the riches of the world, fell beneath the sword of Alexander the Great, who became master of it after a laborious seige, and totally destroyed it.

The celebrated Dido, being compelled to fly from Tyre, to escape the avidity of her brother, king Pygmalion, who, for the sake of his wealth, had basely murdered her husband Sichæus, one of the priests of Hercules, was followed by several vessels with adherents, and established herself on the coast of Africa, opposite to Sicily. She there purchased as much land as she could encompass with a bull's hide, which, cutting into small stripes, environed therewith a considerable quantity of ground, on which she built Carthage, which, from this female trick, has also been called Byrsa, that is; the *Hide*. Dido founded Carthage about the seventieth year of Rome. Virgil pretends that she killed herself because Æneas forsook her: but this is mere fiction, which may be well permitted to a poet. Hiarbas, king of the Getulians, would have forced her by arms to marry him, but rather than violate her vow to her first husband she put an end to her life. Such is the origin, wholly fabulous perhaps, of the celebrated Carthage, so distinguished in history by her vast wealth, her

great power, her long struggle for the empire of the world; and, in short, for her terrible downfall. Carthage existed for about seven hundred years; but it is only the last century of her history which excites great interest, because it embraces the three famous Punic wars, and the celebrated expedition of Hannibal.

C.

LETTER V.

Carthage—Concluded.

THE famous Hannibal, who is considered as one of the greatest generals of antiquity, was not more than twenty-six years of age when he commenced his celebrated expedition into Italy. He departed from Carthage, and, in the short space of five months and an half, reached the plains of Piedmont, after having traversed, in defiance of the obstacles of nature and the efforts of man, the Ebro, the Pyrenees, the Rhone, and the Alps. It would not be candid to judge of the labors of this march from the condition of Spain and Italy in modern times. These countries at present have tolerable roads and are inhabited by a civilized people; but at the period that Hannibal invaded Italy, the routes were less penetrable, and the inhabitants, for a great part, were barbarians. His march cost him more than one half the number of his soldiers; for he left Spain at the head of sixty thousand men, and when he arrived in Italy he could only count twenty-five thousand. With this small number of troops he found himself at

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an immense distance from his country, environed on every side by powerful and angry enemies, without the possibility of retreat, and without apparent resources. Such was the critical situation of Hannibal, in which his intrepid soul, fearless of danger, appeared to glory. Indeed it required a spirit of romantic valor, and a firm composure that no accident could ruffle, to extricate him from his difficulties. His first exploit was the taking of Turin; shortly after which he defeated on the Tessino, Scipio, one of the Roman consuls, and on the Trebia he totally overthrew his colleague, the presumptuous Sempronius. Pursuing his successes with ardor, he traversed the Appenines, penetrated into Tuscany through dreadful marshes, and for four days proceeded up to his middle in water. From these fatigues, and the insalubrity of putrid exhalations, Hannibal lost an eye. At last he overtook the rash Flaminius, on the borders of the lake Thrasymine, where he overcame and slew him. At this moment Rome had been lost but for the prudence of Fabius. Hannibal, unable to bring Fabius to action, employed himself and forces in the central parts of Italy, subduing and ravaging different portions of it, and watching a favorable opportunity for some new blow against his chief enemy. This opportunity soon presented itself. The wise Fabius, whose dilatory mode of warfare had rendered him unpopular with his fellow citizens, was thrown aside, and the imprudent Varro appointed in his stead. Varro lost the battle of Cannæ, where, it is said, there perished seventy thousand Romans. Hannibal sent to the senate of Carthage, as part of the fruits of this victory, a bushel of gold rings, taken from the Roman nobility (so great was the slaughter!) who were left dead on the field of battle.

Here it has become a reproach to Hannibal that

He did not march directly to Rome. But was it, in fact, an error, or could he, under the circumstances, act otherwise than he did? Opinions are divided on the subject. Be it as it may, after the victory of Cannæ he overran the country in various directions by marches and counter-marches, subdued many cities, deprived the Romans of their allies, and took up his winter-quarters at Capua. The pleasing but pernicious indulgencies which his troops there experienced enfeebled their spirit and relaxed their discipline. It is certain that from this period the great successes and the good fortune of Hannibal ceased. He commenced, indeed, the siege of Rome; but he was compelled to raise it, finding himself perpetually harassed by the enemy, who had retaken Capua and Tarentum. Meanwhile, a hostile faction at Carthage deprived him of all succors from thence. His brother Asdrubal, in conducting reinforcements to him from Spain, across the Alps, was defeated and killed. The young Scipio, whose brilliant exploits had rendered him a prodigy, having subjugated Spain, transported himself and army to the shores of Carthage. A multitude of circumstances combined to defeat the plans of Hannibal, and to free Rome and Italy from his presence. This terrible enemy of the Romans was finally constrained to return and defend his own country. It is said that he shed tears on leaving Italy, where, for sixteen years, in a delightful country, he had exhibited a victorious career, and was accustomed to regard his conquests as his patrimony.

Hannibal and Scipio encountered one another at Zama, on the Carthaginian territory; and these two celebrated heroes decided, in a single day, the destinies of the two most powerful nations in the world. Hannibal was vanquished, although, according to the

testimony of his antagonist, he surpassed his former actions in this unfortunate battle. Scipio obtained a complete victory; and from that day Rome knew no rival in the universe. Hannibal eventually became a solitary wanderer in foreign countries, his name and his genius a terror to the Romans, till, wearied with misfortunes, he put a period to his existence by a dose of poison, which he carried about him, concealed in a ring, for the purpose. C.

LETTER VI.

Assyrians.—Greece, and the chief objects connected with her History.

THERE were four great monarchies of antiquity; the Assyrian, the Persian, the Macedonian, and the Roman. Of the Assyrian monarchy we know but little; and what we do know is still liable to the fluctuation of uncertainty. It is said to have been founded in the year 2233 before Jesus Christ, by Nimrod, who, by some, is said to be the same as Ninus and Belus, whilst others insist that he is the Saturn or the Bacchus of fable. It endured for fourteen hundred years, down to the year before Christ 770. The principal cities of this kingdom were Nineveh, upon the Tigris, and Babylon upon the Euphrates. Diodorus Siculus says that Nineveh was erected by Ninus, who was desirous of rendering it the greatest and the most celebrated city of the universe; it was twenty-four leagues in circumference, was encircled with a wall one hundred feet in height,

and of such thickness that three chariots could pass abreast. The walls were flanked by towers of two hundred feet in height. Babylon, embellished by Semiramis, and those who succeeded her, is represented as a still more marvellous place than Nineveh. It is said that its walls were three hundred feet in height, seventy-five feet in thickness, twenty-four leagues in circumference, and had one hundred brazen gates. The monarchy ended with Sardanapalus, several of whose officers, selecting Belesis, the governor of Media, for their chief, revolted from their sovereign, and besieged him in his palace, where he was compelled to burn himself with all his treasures. From the fragments of the Assyrian, were formed three other monarchies, namely, that of the Medes, of which Ecabatana was the capital; that of the Ninevites, and that of the Babylonians. The most interesting objects of the Assyrian history, according to Diodorus Siculus, who copied from Ctesias, were the celebrated expedition of Ninus against the Bactrians, at the head of one million seven hundred thousand infantry and two hundred thousand cavalry; and the reign of Semiramis, with whom Ninus became acquainted at the siege of Bactra, where that wonderful woman displayed her extraordinary genius. Semiramis, having become a widow, signalized herself in the arts of government. She traversed her empire, embellished and enlarged it. This princess conquered a part of Ethiopia, and from thence made an expedition to India, which was famous and unfortunate. The wonders of Babylon have attracted attention. Ctesias, the physician, first of the younger Cyrus, and afterwards of his brother, has written the history of the Assyrians and of the Persians; in twenty-three books. A few remains of this writer have reached us. He is the source of all the fables

which fill this period : he almost invariably contradicts Herodotus, and frequently deviates from Xenophon. Aristotle judged him little worthy of credit ; but notwithstanding that, Diodorus Siculus and many others have given him the preference, and often copy him. Among the moderns, Rollin, in his ancient history, has united all that the Greek and Roman historians have said upon the subject.

Next in order would follow an account of the Persian monarchy ; but as the most remarkable events of this kingdom, and those which are chiefly worthy our notice, grew out of its contests with the Greeks, I will first describe the principal republics of that far-famed people, who still claim and receive the homage of our unfeigned respect.

Sparta, one of the four famous republics of Greece, was founded one thousand five hundred and sixteen years before Jesus Christ. Lelex is the first king of Lacedemon whose name we know. He was reckoned the founder, and appears to have been a native of Laconia. Castor, Pollux, Helen, and Clytemnestra, names celebrated in fable, were descended from him. The government of Sparta was an aristocracy : eight hundred and eighty-four years before Christ, Lycurgus, of the royal house, became the legislator of his country, in which character he caused his fellow citizens to adopt the most extraordinary constitution that has ever been known. He placed the authority of the state in the hands of a senate for life, in which the laws were approved or rejected by the people. The magistrates were two hereditary kings, and five annual Ephori, or popular magistrates, something like the tribunes of the Romans. The period of the greatest grandeur for Sparta was after the war of Peloponnesus, when, having humbled Athens and seized Thebes, she beheld Syracuse and the

Persians suing for her alliance. Her destiny was completed about one hundred and eighty-six years before Christ, when Sparta was taken by Philopœman, chief of the Achæan league. The city surrendered at discretion, but was treated as a place taken by assault: the walls were razed and the laws of Lycurgus were abolished.

In the year before Jesus Christ 1557, Athens was founded by Cecrops, who brought a colony out of Egypt and established himself in Attica. He taught the natives agriculture and introduced the olive among them. It was Cecrops who instituted the Areopagus. The government of Athens was democratic. In the year 594 before Christ, after the death of Codrus, the last king, the city erected itself into a republic, the constitution of which was framed by Solon: he placed the sovereignty in the hands of the populace, who decided upon the objects which had been deliberated upon by a senate of great numbers. The magistrates of the Athenian republic were Archons, who were at first chosen for life, afterwards for ten years, and finally they were increased and elected annually. The period of greatest grandeur for Athens was about the time of the Persian war, when she was seen to accomplish acts of firm courage and to exhibit the most astonishing virtues. The fate of Athens was decided four hundred and four years before Christ, when the city was taken by Lysander, a Lacedæmonian chief, towards the conclusion of the Peloponnesian war: her walls were thrown down and her government changed. From this severe blow she never recovered.

Thebes was founded in the year 1494 before Christ, by Cadmus, who arrived from the neighborhood of Tyre with a colony of Phœnicians, and built the city of Thebes in Bœtia, the citadel of which took from

him its name. He carried along with him the art of writing. The government was variable. The misfortunes of Laius, of Jocasta, of Œdipus, of Eteocles' and of Polynices, are identified with the history of the Thebans, and have furnished subjects for the theatres. The magistrates were Bœotarchs, who were supreme in Thebes, and at the same time the head of the Bœotian league. The time of their highest renown was under Pelopidas and Epaminondas, who freed their country from the Lacedæmonian yoke, and gave them a superiority over the rest of the Greeks. About three hundred and eighty years before Christ the city was taken by Alexander, against whom it had revolted; it was then demolished and burnt, with the exception of the house of Pindar, who was accounted the chief of the nine Lyric poets, viz: Alcæus, Alcman, Anacreon, Bacchylides, Ibycus, Sappho, Stersichorus, Simonides, and Pindarus or Pindar. He was a man of a sublime and majestic genius, and Horace describes his style as being adorned with a fluency beautifully irregular. It was for his poetical talent that Alexander spared him. All the inhabitants of Thebes were sold.

Corinth was founded in the year 1326 before Jesus Christ. Properly speaking, Sisyphus was the first king, the Corinthians having previously submitted to those of Argos and Mycene. Her commencement is much more obscure than that of the other cities just mentioned. Generally, the government of Corinth was oligarchic. About one hundred years after the siege of Troy, the race of Sisyphus was driven out, and to it succeeded that of the Bacchides, under whom Corinth assumed a republican form of rule, with the authority in the hands of the Elders. The magistrates were the Prytanes, of an aristocratical cast, elected by the elders, who chose

them annually out of their own body. Corinth was most distinguished during the Achæan league, when this city was regarded as the first of Greece. In the year 146 before Christ it was taken by the Roman general Mummius, who consigned the houses to the flames and razed the walls. Nothing could surpass the riches of the place in metals and in masterworks of all kinds. With the destruction of Corinth the independence of Greece became extinct.

Various and important Objects of Grecian History.

The *Olympiad* was an interval of time, corresponding to four of our years, which elapsed between two successive celebrations of the Olympic games. It served the Greeks for a mode of computing time.

The *Amphyctions* was a diet of the council and supreme tribunal of the Greek confederation, composed of deputies from every member of the confederacy, and it assembled every year at Thermopylæ.

The *Areopagus* was a celebrated court of justice at Athens. The number of its members was not fixed. It was composed of Archons who had gone out of office and who had worthily discharged their duties. No tribunal ever had a greater reputation for wisdom and equity. It more especially exercised authority over the morals and the education of the youth. It interdicted, in the deliberations of its members, the use of declamation, that their understandings might not be seduced by eloquence; and it held its sittings in the night in order to elude the influence of gesticulation. Its decrees were enacted by a simple plurality; and, in case of division, a subaltern officer added, in favor of the accused, the suffrage of Minerva.

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The Four Public and Solemn Games of Greece.

The Olympic Games, celebrated every four years in honor of Jupiter.

The Pythian Games, celebrated every four years in honor of Apollo.

The Isthmian Games, celebrated every four years in honor of Neptune.

The Nemean Games, instituted by Hercules, and celebrated every two years.

Principal Legislators of Greece.

In the year 1406 before Christ, Minos gave laws to the Cretans. These laws served as a basis for those of Lycurgus.

845 years before Christ, Lycurgus completed a code of laws for Sparta. They were very singular; and he obliged the lords and commons to keep them until his return from Delphos, whither he went to consult the oracle on the subject. But he afterwards became a voluntary exile from his country, and dying, he ordered his body to be thrown into the sea, in order that the Spartans might not, by the transportation of his corpse to the city, be released from their promise.

In the year 840 before Christ, Phedon gave laws to Corinth.

624 years before Christ, Draco gave such severe laws to the Athenians, that it was a common saying that they were written with blood.

594 years before Christ, Solon gave laws to Athens, and their celebrity rendered them the rival of those of Lycurgus.

In the year 550 before Christ, Zaleucus, a disci-

ple of Pythagoras, framed a body of laws for the Locrians of Italy.

446 years before Christ, Charondas, also a disciple of Pythagoras, gave laws to Thurium or New Sybaris. C.

LETTER VII.

Greece—with the various important objects connected with her history.—Continued.

WARS.

AMONG the wars of Greece that have been the most famous, we may reckon those of the Spartans and the Messenians. There were three mortal combats between these two powers, and they all terminated in favor of Sparta. The first commenced towards the year 774 before Christ, lasted for twenty years, and concluded in the destruction of Ithome. The second began towards the year 684 before Christ, endured for fourteen years, and was terminated by the capture of Ira. The third took place about the year before Christ 465, lasted for 14 years, and ended in the expulsion of the Messenians from Peloponnesus.

The wars of the Greeks with the Persians occupy a period of fifty years. The original cause of them is said to have been the ambition of Darius, excited by Hippias, the son of Pisistratus, who took refuge at the court of Persia after his banishment from Athens. This long-continued conflict embraces three distinct epochs: 1. The expedition of Darius: 2. That of

Xerxes: 3. And that of the Greeks against the Persians.

The expedition of Darius took place 490 years before Christ. This prince, (believed to be the Ahasuerus of Scripture, who, influenced by Esther, revoked the sentence against the Jews, and confounded the wickedness of Haman,) was one of the most illustrious monarchs of Persia: Just, merciful, courageous, and warlike, Darius, who had greatly extended the empire of his predecessors, by an unhappy destiny, saw his glories tarnished on the sterile shores of Attica. He had subdued Thrace and Macedonia; but the conquest of Greece still remained to be achieved. Hypias, driven from Athens, excited him with all his arts to the enterprise, whilst the conduct of the Greeks themselves tended to irritate him to fury against their country. Having sent heralds into Greece, to demand *earth and water*, that is to say, submission to his power, the Lacedemonians, in an atrocious spirit of irony, *interred* one alive and *drowned* the other. The Athenians, on their part, sacrificed the interpreter, for having, said they, sullied the Greek language with such a vile proposition. Darius, in his anger, expedited against Greece 110,000 men, commanded by Datis and Artaphernes. They at first took the island Eubœa, burnt Eretria, and sent all the inhabitants in chains to Darius. They had in reserve a similar fate for the rest of Greece, which, however, was saved by a splendid victory. The celebrated Miltiades, at the head of only ten thousand men, had the temerity to attack this multitude of Persians near the town of Marathon. He threw them entirely into confusion, and left them no other refuge than the asylum which their vessels afforded, and which they gained with much difficulty. Hypias perished. The Spartans did not arrive until

the day after the battle, notwithstanding they had marched forty-six leagues in three days in order to arrive at the field of action.

The expedition of Xerxes against the Greeks took place about the year 481 before Christ. This prince, who was the son and successor of Darius, after seven years of immense preparation, and a strict alliance with the Carthagenians, who, on their side, undertook to attack the Greeks of Sicily and Italy, put himself in motion with almost an entire nation, to avenge the misfortunes of his father. Herodotus, whose veracity, in this particular, may well be questioned, reckons five millions as the aggregate of that multitude of men which Xerxes assembled for the invasion of Greece. He crossed the Hellespont upon a bridge of boats, and his troops, it is said, were seven days and seven nights in passing over. He pursued his march without resistance, along the coast of Thrace, of Macedonia, and of Thessaly, whilst his fleet keeping pace with his army, passed through mount Athos, which Herodotus alleges Xerxes had the folly to cut. The Persian forces at length arrived at the defile of Thermopylæ, where there occurred another event of immortal celebrity. Leonidas and three hundred Spartans, for two days arrested the progress of the whole Persian army, and finally fell the victims more of treachery than of force, a Thracian having shown to the troops of Xerxes a passage over the mountains. This defile of Thermopylæ is a strait between mount Cæta and the sea, about two leagues in length, and in no place more than twenty feet in width. It cost the Persians more than twenty thousand men.

At the same time that the Persian king overran Phocia and Bœotia, he inundated with his myriads the territory of Attica, and arrived at Athens. Themistocles had sufficient influence to cause it to be aban-

done. The entire population embraced the magnanimous resolution to embark on board their vessels, which conveyed them to the island of Salamis, opposite to the deserted city. The Persian barks, in defiance of tempests and of the repeated attacks of the Greeks in the vicinity of Eubœa arrived at the same time in the neighborhood of Salamis. Xerxes, seated upon a throne, elevated above the shores of Athens, gave the signal for a sea fight, which he animated by his presence. Twelve hundred and seven vessels composed the Persian fleet, whilst the Greeks could barely reckon three hundred and eighty. Victory, however, declared for the latter. Their triumph was complete, having destroyed about 200 of the vessels of their enemy. Eurybiades, the Lacedemonian, commanded; Aristides was in the action, but Themistocles was the hero of the day.

After this event Xerxes did not conceive himself in very great safety, and leaving Mardonius with 350,000 Persians, he hastily returned to his kingdom, happy in being able to repass, in a small skiff, that same Hellespont which but lately had been covered with his boats.

Mardonius was not more fortunate than his master: he was beaten, killed on the plains of Platea in Bœotia, and his army destroyed. He was vanquished by the celebrated Pausanias; and the brilliance of this victory was increased by another not less glorious, for Leontichydas, with the Grecian fleet, defeated that of the Persians at Mycale at the same time.

Expedition of the Greeks against the Persians.

The disasters of the Persians and the victories of the Greeks, rendered the latter aggressors in their turn. They overran the isle of the Ægean sea and

the coasts of Thrace, those of Ionia, carried off whatever belonged to the king of Persia, and broke the yoke of such as had reluctantly yielded to his domination. Pausanias, Themistocles, but, above all, Cymon, gave to the Persians the most mortal blows. This latter has rendered himself forever renowned by his two victories in one day, upon two different elements. With an inferior squadron he destroyed the Persian fleet at the mouth of the Eurymedon, and landing in the face of the enemy's army, he attacked, beat, and dispersed it.

At length, Artaxerxes, weary of so unfortunate a war, terminated it by a peace which completed the glory of Greece. He consented that all the Greek cities of Asia should be free, that Persian vessels should not navigate the Ægean sea, and that the latter power should not station any military force within three days' march of its coast.

War of the Peloponnesus.

This war was commenced about the year before Christ 431. It endured for twenty-seven years, and the history of it is given to us by Thucydides. It partly originated in the revolting conduct of Athens, who was desirous of domineering arbitrarily over the rest of Greece; and in part from the jealousy of Sparta and the other Greek States, which bore with impatience the supremacy of the Athenians. A quarrel between Corinth and Corcyra, one of her colonies, served as a pretext and was the signal for a general war.

All the Greeks partook in this terrible quarrel, and arranged themselves on the side of Sparta or of Athens; but in such a manner that, generally speaking, all the land forces were united with Sparta.

whilst the maritime cities connected themselves with Athens. It was this great difference in the nature of the forces, and the difficulty of being brought in collision, which prolonged the war, and rendered it more destructive than bloody. Sparta menaced Athens with all her forces, ravaged her environs, and blockaded her inhabitants within their walls. Athens, on her part, avenged herself by the ravages which she committed among her enemies, whereby she compelled them to fly to the defence of their own habitations. The plague prevailed many times during these unhappy conflicts, and gave a finishing touch to the calamities with which those wretched countries were troubled.

Among the actions worthy of particular observation were the capture of the island of Sphactria, in front of Pylos. The Athenians had at that time a fine opportunity of making an advantageous peace, which was repeatedly offered to them by Sparta, the latter being anxious to save those of their citizens who were likely to be made captives. The siege of Potidea, which surrendered to the Athenians after three years investment; the inhabitants were driven out, and the city was peopled with Athenians. The siege of Amphipolis, the taking of which by the Spartan Brasidias, occasioned the banishment of the historian Thucydides, who was named by the citizens of Athens to go to its aid. The imprudent and vain Cleon, who was charged with the recapture of the place, was killed in flying before a sortie of the besieged; but the brave Brasidias, who commanded the latter, was slain in the midst of his success. The expedition to Sicily, which was undertaken at the instigation of Alcibiades, in opposition to the wiser counsels of Nicias: Alcibiades had the direction of a select portion of the vessels, marines, and soldiers;

but Nicias and Demosthenes had the principal control. All their efforts were directed against Syracuse: The resistance which they met with afforded time for Gylippus the Lacedemonian to come to the succor of the place, and the expedition terminated in a most disastrous manner for the Athenians. Their vessels were lost, their army was beaten, hemmed in, and compelled to surrender;—the soldiers were made slaves and the generals were put to death. Athens never fairly recovered from this dreadful reverse; and Cicero has well remarked on this occasion, that her glory and her power had been shipwrecked in the port of Syracuse. The naval combat of the Arginusæ, where the Athenians vanquished the Lacedemonian Callicratides, who, although very inferior, fought from a false notion of honor, and perished in the battle. The citizens of Athens condemned their eight victorious generals for having neglected to bury their slain. The sea-fight of Ægos Patimos, where, by address, Lysander destroyed the Athenian fleet, took their generals, pillaged their camp, and in some measure decided the fate of the war. Of 180 vessels scarcely one remained to Athens. The capture of Athens by Lysander, who, after the victory of Ægos Patimos, blockaded it by sea, whilst the kings of Lacedemon invested it by land. Reduced to the last extremity by famine, their ill-fated city implored mercy from her enemy, who razed her walls, demolished her port, changed her government, destroyed her marine, and reduced her to a species of servitude.

LETTER VIII.

Greece—and the chief Objects connected with her History—Concluded.

AMONG the great men of Greece we may reckon the celebrated Pericles, the husband of Aspasia, that remarkable woman, who taught eloquence to Socrates, who was well skilled in politics, and whose excellent qualities, obscuring her vices, served to impress Pericles with respect for her intellect as well as to inspire him with a greater degree of devotion to her charms. He was a disciple of the famous Anaxagoras, a philosopher who was honored with the surname of *Intelligence*, indicative of his luminous understanding. The historians of Greece consider Pericles among the most brilliant of the Athenians. His birth was illustrious, and his features and his voice recalled to the memory of his countrymen, in a very forcible manner, those of Pisistratus, whom he still more resembled by his authority among the people of Athens. He governed them nearly his whole lifetime; not by force of arms, but by the power of his genius and the magic of his eloquence. No person ever possessed in a greater degree than he did the faculty of subjugating the multitude to his will, by the arts of popular seduction: By some it was said that the sovereign of the gods had confided to him the thunder and the lightning; and by others, that the goddess of persuasion dwelt on his lips, adorned with all her graces. We are to regard these compliments as a little extravagant, but they are calculated to inspire us with a high opinion of the man who, by his mind and his accomplishments, could extort them from a people so witty, so polite, and so

well informed as the Athenians. Pericles supplanted Cymon in the public favor, and succeeded to his influence: He filled Athens with the master-works of art, and distributed to the multitude, in largesses or in entertainments, the riches of the republic. His reign was that of the fine arts, which, under him, attained the highest point of perfection. A difficulty in making out a fair statement of his accounts, and the hope that he might be still enabled to preserve his authority by a change of circumstances, were the causes that induced Pericles to plunge Athens into the Peloponnesian war, which was as fatal to him as it was to his country. He died of the plague which prevailed during the first campaigns of that contest.

Alcibiades, the disciple of Socrates, was one of the most extraordinary men of antiquity: he united in his person almost every good quality and almost every bad one; he was, by turns, the glory and the scourge of his fellow citizens. Thirst for power, and the desire of pleasing, were the predominant features of his character; and it was chiefly by means of the second that he satisfied the first. To a pleasing figure and a ravishing exterior, he joined all the powers of the mind and all the charms of elocution. The people liked his courage, they admired his manners, and, in truth, taken altogether, he was irresistible: faults, which he took no pains to conceal, they pardoned; and if, at any time, they were forced to condemn him for his misdemeanors, they soon hastened to recall him to their favor. It was this temper of the populace in relation to Alcibiades, which induced Aristophanes to say, *they hate, but cannot do without, him.* Indeed he possessed extraordinary ability in conquering their affections; and to this end he always employed a flexibility of character and manners adapted to his situation. He pleased at Athens by

his gracefulness and sprightliness—at Sparta by his frugality; in Thrace by his intemperance; and in Asia by his luxury and magnificence. It was Alcibiades who planned the expedition against Sicily, and it has been thought that it might have succeeded if he had been placed and continued at the head of it. He was, however, displaced by his fellow citizens; but, doubting their judgment of his actions, he went over to the enemy, and was the principal cause of the disasters which befel the Athenians. His country being upon the brink of ruin, he was recalled. Putting himself at the head of the army of Athens he beat her antagonists by land and sea, re-established her affairs, and returned to the city covered with laurels. Banished a second time, he entered again into the interests of Persia. Finally, being equally dreaded by friends and foes, they united to destroy him. Assassins were employed to set fire in the night to a cabin, which merely served to shelter him from the inclemency of the weather, and as he attempted to fly from the flames they pierced him to death with arrows. Thus perished the great, the gay, the licentious Alcibiades, who, during the whole course of his life, was, emphatically, *all things to all men*.

I have spoken of Themistocles in describing the Persian war, when he inspired the Athenians with the noble resolution of abandoning their city, inculcating the admirable doctrine that in whatever place the laws and institutions of Athens prevailed, that would be their country. He was, in his youth, exceedingly perverse and dissipated, insomuch that his father disinherited him. This roused him to exertion; he soon obtained consideration in the state; and it was chiefly owing to his sagacity and firmness that Greece was saved from the Persian yoke under Xerxes. His desire of glory and of serving his coun-

try was so strong, that he sometimes descended to inferior stations for the public good, as was the case when he yielded the command of the fleet at the battle of Salamis to his rival Eurybiades. He fortified Athens and the Piræus, and added to her navy. His countrymen, nevertheless, with their characteristic caprice, banished him. He took refuge with Artaxerxes, the son of the same Xerxes whom he had not a great while before driven out of Greece. He was received with great friendship and high honors by the sovereign of Persia, who assigned to him the revenue of three rich cities to find him in bread, meat, and wine. But Themistocles was still a Greek at heart, and pined for the mountains and vallies of Attica. He could not, in such a temper of mind, carry on war against Athens, and either poisoned himself or died broken-hearted. His bones were conveyed home by the Athenians, who erected a splendid monument to his memory.

Aristides who has been called the just, was chiefly distinguished for his rigid probity and temperance. He shrunk before the masterly genius of Themistocles, who occasioned his banishment. He was, however, recalled, took part in the Persian war, and distinguished himself at the battle of Platea, where he held command in conjunction with Pausanias. He died poor, was buried at the public expense, and in consideration of the father's virtue and their indigence his daughters, when marriageable, received a dowry from the purse of the republic.

Nicias was a general of much courage and experience, but of a fearful understanding, slow, and indecisive. It was he, who contrary to his own advice and will, had the direction of the expedition against Sicily, in concert with Demosthenes, another general, who, we are to observe, was not the great orator of

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that name. They both perished by the hands of the hangman, contrary to the law of nations and the faith of treaties.

Conon was an Athenian naval commander, who obtained celebrity by his successes and his misfortunes.

Brasidas, Gylippus, and Callicratidas, exhibited considerable talents and effected great things on the part of the Lacedemonians: but Lysander eclipsed them all: He covered his country with glory by his successes. He was arrogant and fond of praise—but valiant in battle and subtle in council. He aimed at absolute power, but never could completely attain it, and finally fell in a combat with the Haliartans, who attacked him by surprise. The spoils of Athens eventually avenged her misfortunes upon her victorious rival. They were for Sparta the empoisoned tunic of Nessus; for the riches which Lysander introduced into the bosom of his country paved the way for the destruction of the Lacedemonians.

The reader who is curious to go more at large into the history of the illustrious men who were particularly distinguished among the Greeks, may resort to the entertaining biography of Plutarch: But I must not altogether omit the story of Xenophon and the wonderful retreat of the ten thousand. This is an action, the most celebrated of its kind that history has transmitted to us. The young Cyrus, brother of Artaxerxes Mnemon, king of Persia, commanded in the Western provinces of that empire in Asia Minor. Impelled by a blind and culpable ambition, he revolted against his sovereign and marched upon Babylon at the head of 100,000 barbarians and of 13,000 Greeks, with the intention of dethroning his brother: The latter met him at the head of more than 900,000 men. The two armies fought on the plains of Cu-

naxa, within sixty miles of the capital of the empire. The young Cyrus, in the midst of victory, seized with fury at the sight of his brother, rushed impetuously upon him, but was thrown from his horse and slain. The Greeks, who, in the wing where they were stationed, had achieved an entire victory, found themselves placed by the death of Cyrus in a very singular predicament. Deprived of their prince, environed by enemies, more than 1800 miles from home, without provisions and without allies, they were summoned to surrender: But they proudly refused, and demanded a free and peaceable passage to their country: this was granted to them; for the Persians were afraid to attack them, and believed it easier to destroy them by treachery than subdue them by force. In truth, Clearchus, with many other of their officers, were soon afterwards put to death. Xenophon, a young Athenian, full of wisdom, revived the drooping spirits of his companions on this trying occasion, and they placed him at their head. It was he who had the glory of effecting this memorable retreat, so often referred to by men of science as one of the most admirable expeditions recorded in the annals of nations. Constantly pursued by a multitude of enemies, the Greeks had to pass rivers, to cross mountains, and to traverse deserts innumerable. In a word they were perpetually compelled to fight, to vanquish, to march, to find themselves in provisions; and yet it was not above fifteen months, after having overcome every natural obstacle as well as the attacks of their foes, that the ten thousand Greeks, reduced to eight thousand six hundred, reached their native borders. They had marched upwards of 1,300 leagues. The sage Xenophon, who was their guide and became their historian; has immortalized himself under both these titles. He was a disciple of Socrates, and devoted

himself during the latter part of his life to philosophy and literature. His style of writing was so distinguished for simplicity and sweetness that he obtained the surname of the *Bee of Greece*, and Quintilian has paid him a high compliment on the beauty of his diction. All he wrote was calculated to inspire his readers with a love of virtue, to whose dictates he likewise conformed in his personal deportment.

C.

LETTER, IX.

AS a person embarking on his travels into distant countries, casts, from on shipboard, a lingering, farewell look, towards the receding shore, and recalls to his mind a thousand pleasing incidents; so I, in passing from my brief historical view of ancient Greece, cannot resist the temptation of recurring to the fabulous part of her annals. Her history is that of gods, of heroes, and of great men. It is through her that we have come to the knowledge of nations which preceded her, and of those which were cotemporaneous with her: And it is impossible to contemplate subjects connected with the arts and sciences without thinking of a country where they chiefly originated and were brought to the greatest perfection. Considerations like these incline us to view with reverence, and regard as important, every invention and every institution of the Grecian commonwealths. This letter, therefore, will be devoted to a sketch of the Divinities, of the Muses, of the Demigods, of the Twelve Labors of Hercules, the seven wonders of

the World, and of the different sects of Philosophers of Antiquity, all of which are, more or less, interwoven with the establishments of the Greeks.

Principal Divinities of the Pagan World.

Jupiter, the master of the gods, was the son of Saturn, and had Juno for his wife.

Neptune, brother of Jupiter and god of the Ocean, had Amphitrite for wife.

Pluto, brother of Jupiter and god of hell, was married to Proserpine, the daughter of Ceres.

Mars, the god of war, had Bellona for his sister and Terror and Fear for children.

Minerva, or Pallas, (sprung from the brain of Jupiter,) goddess of wisdom, of the arts, and of war.

Venus, goddess of love and beauty; the Smiles and Graces compose her train.

Cupid, the son of Venus and of Vulcan, who presided over fire, and was the patron of all artists who worked in iron and metal.

Apollo, or Phœbus, son of Jupiter and Latona, god of Music and Poetry. He conducted the chariot of the Sun and presided at the concerts of the Muses.

Diana, sister of Apollo, goddess of the chase : In hell she is called Hecate.

Ceres, presided over agriculture. The god Terminus presided over the bounds and limits of land.

Hebe, goddess of youth ; and Ganymede, employed by Jupiter to pour out nectar for the gods.

Bacchus, god of wine ; Old Silenus was his foster-father.

Mercury, messenger of the gods and god of craft, and eloquence. He had a variety of occupations assigned him. Themis, was the goddess of Justice.

Iris, with rain-bow wings, of a thousand colors, was the messenger of Juno.

Aurora, with rosy fingers, goddess of the morning. Morpheus, god of sleep and dreams.

Æolus, god of winds and tempests. Nemesis goddess of vengeance.

Flora and Pomona, goddesses of flowers and of fruits. Pan and Sylvanus, gods of shepherds and of groves.

Dryads, Hamadryads, and Lymnades, nymphs of woods, trees, and lakes.

Naiades, nymphs of woods and mountains: Nereides, nymphs of the sea.

Syrens, sea-nymphs, who enchanted passengers by the melody of their voices.

Fawns and Satyrs, country divinities, followers of Bacchus.

The three Graces, Aglaia, Euphrosina, and Thalia, followers of Venus.

The three Fates, Clotho, Lachesis, and Atropos, who presided over human life.

The three Furies, Alecto, Megera, and Tisiphone, armed with torches and with serpents.

The three Judges of Hell, Minos, Æacus, and Rhadamanthus.

The three Harpies, with antiquated visages, the bodies of vultures, and claws of iron.

The three Hesperides, Eglea, Arethusa, and Hyperethusa, who guarded the golden apples.

The three Gorgons, (who had between them only one eye and one tooth,) Euryale, Medusa, and Stheno: they changed into stone all who looked upon them.

The Nine Muses, who presided over the Liberal Arts; with their Attributes.

Clio, presides over History; crowned with laurel, having a trumpet and a book.

Euterpe, presides over Music; crowned with flowers and playing the flute.

Thalia, presides over Comedy; having on socks or sandals, and holding a mask in her hand.

Melpomene, presides over Tragedy; having on buskins, and armed with a poignard.

Terpsichore, presides over Dancing; crowned with garlands, and holding a harp.

Erato, presides over lyric poetry; crowned with myrtle and roses, holding a lyre.

Polyhymnia, presides over rhetoric; crowned with jewels and armed with a sceptre.

Calliope, presides over eloquence and heroic poetry; crowned with laurel.

Urania, presides over astronomy; crowned with stars and holding a celestial globe.

The Heroes, or Demigods; and their principal actions.

Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danæ, husband of Andromeda, whom he delivered from a sea monster: His principal action was his victory over the Gorgons; one of whom, Medusa, he slew.

Hercules, the son of Jupiter and Alcmena, husband of Dejanira, is the most celebrated of all the Heroes or Demigods: He is particularly famous for his twelve labors.

Orpheus: The most rapid rivers restrained their currents; the most savage beasts hastened from the forests; the mountains descended from their sum-

mits to their bases, at the sound of his harmonious voice. He charmed all hell with his lyre, and obtained from Pluto permission for his wife Eurydice to return to the earth on conditions which his impatience did not permit him to fulfil.

Castor and Pollux, twin sons of Jupiter and Leda, and brothers of the beautiful Helen. Castor having been killed, Pollux was permitted to partake of his immortality; so that they lived and died, alternately, every six months.

Jason, the chief of the Argonauts, particularly celebrated for his conquest of the golden fleece at Colchis: He was enabled to effect it by the aid of Medea, who became his wife.

Theseus, famous, in particular, for his destruction of the Minotaur. He effected it by the assistance of Ariadne, who rescued him from the Labyrinth by means of a clue of thread.

The Twelve Labors of Hercules.

1. The Lion of Nemea, which he strangled and wore the hide. The scene of this action was in Argolis.

2. The Hydra of Lerna, from which the heads, as frequently as they were cut off, sprang out again in great numbers. The scene of this action was likewise in Argolis.

3. The wild boar of Mount Erymanthus, which he took alive and conveyed on his shoulders to Eurystheus. The scene of this action was in Arcadia.

4. The Hind with brazen feet, which he took in the chase on Mount Menale. The scene of this action was also in Arcadia.

5. The terrible birds of lake Stymphalis, which were carnivorous. Hercules exterminated them by

showers of arrows. The scene of this action was in Arcadia likewise.

6. The Bull of the island of Crete, which he conveyed alive into Peloponnesus. The scene of this action, of course, was Crete.

7. The Mares of Diomedes, which fed on human flesh, and which Hercules carried off. The scene of this action was Thrace.

8. The Girdle of Hypolyte, queen of the Amazons, which he secured after having defeated her. The scene of this action was Thermodon.

9. The Stables of Augias, which he cleansed by changing the course of the river Alpheus. The scene of this action was Elis.

10. The monster Gerion, king of Gades, whom he killed, and carried off his flocks. The scene of this action was in Spain.

11. The golden apples of the Hesperides, which he carried off after having killed the dragon. The scene of this action was in Africa.

12. Theseus, whom he delivered from hell, and carried off the terrible three-headed dog Cerberus in chains. The scene of this action was hell.

The Seven Wonders of the World.

1. The Colossus of Rhodes, one hundred and five feet in height, between the legs of which vessels could pass.

2. The Tomb of Mausoleus, king of Caria, erected by Artemisia, his wife, who was inconsolable for his death.

3. The Pyramids of Egypt, several of which still exist.

4. The Temple of Diana at Ephesus, set on fire by

Erostratus, for the purpose of rendering his name immortal.

5. The Statue of Jupiter Olympus, seventy-five feet in height, carved in gold and in ivory by Phidias.

6. The walls of Babylon and her celebrated Gardens suspended in the air.

7. The famous Labyrinth, on the borders of Lake Mœris, in Egypt.

Others have added to these wonders, the Palace of Cyrus, the Temple of Solomon, the Capital, the tower of Pharos, the Jupiter Ammon, the Minerva of Athens, &c. &c.

The Philosophers and their different Sects.

Philosophy, among the Greeks, was designated as the love and the pursuit of wisdom or knowledge. It comprehended two distinct branches, namely, the study of nature, which elevates and ennobles the soul; and the study of morals, which inspires us with virtue and conducts us to happiness. Many celebrated men have traced different routes by which mankind may arrive at wisdom and felicity, and the difference of their principles has given birth to a great many sects, whereof I proceed to specify the most remarkable.

The Greeks recognised two principal schools, subdivided into several branches. The first of these principal schools was the *Ionic*, founded by Thales, of Miletus, who lived about the year 680 before Jesus Christ. Thales was the first of the Greeks who studied astronomy; he fixed the computation of time; and, according to him, water was the grand principle of all things. Anaxagoras, the master of Pericles, was one of his disciples; but the honor and glory of his school was the famous Socrates, the most wise,

the most virtuous, and, perhaps, the most perfect of men. Socrates was the creator of good morals and the discoverer of immortal truths. He believed in the unity of the godhead; in the immortality of the soul; and in the rewards and punishments of a future life. He had a throng of distinguished disciples; among whom were Antisthenes, Alcibiades, Xenophon, Aristippus, and Euclides; but the most renowned of all was Plato. Plato, one of the finest genii of antiquity, was the founder of the sect of the academy. He composed his doctrine of the physicks of Heraclitus, of the Metaphysicks of Pythagoras, and of the Morals of Socrates. The Apology for Socrates, Phedon, or Dialogue on the Immortality of the Soul, and his Treatise of the Republic, are considered his best works. Of his numerous disciples, Aristotle, preceptor of Alexander the Great, was the most celebrated. He founded the sect of the Peripatetics, so named because they had a custom of giving their lessons walking. Aristotle was the author of many works, the number and variety of which it would be difficult to specify. He was supposed to possess the most penetrating, vast, and solid intellect of antiquity. He was the institutor of what is called logic. His Treatise on Rhetoric, his Poetics, and his Treatise on Politics, are the productions held in the most estimation. Antisthenes was founder of the sect of the Cynics. He placed the happiness of mankind in virtue, and virtue in the contempt of riches and of the enjoyments of life. Diogenes, his disciple, pushed these maxims almost to delirium, and the idea of personal independence almost to the neglect of every thing like decorum. It was Diogenes who connected the ideas of effrontery and impudence with the word *cynic*, and thereby ruined the reputation of his sect. Zeno resuscitated it under the

name *Stoic*, stripped of all its vices and embellished with all its virtues. Properly understood, it is the most excellent that has been conceived, and is the most suitable to the true dignity of the human mind. The real stoic pursues virtue from inclination, and does good from choice : equally inaccessible to pleasure and to grief, he flies from honors and applauses, and supports with equanimity the favors and the frowns of fortune. Always calm, always just, always master of himself, his fortitude and his reason are constantly employed for the preservation, in his soul, in all its integrity, of that divine essence which ought always to maintain its empire over the brutal part of our nature. The true stoic is the image of all that approaches nearest to the Deity ; in a word, he is a perfect sage, which perhaps never existed. The most admirable characters of antiquity, such as Epaminondas, Trajan, and Marcus Aurelius, professed the maxims of the stoic school, which ought to be those of all kings and of all who have the government of men. The doctrine of the stoics, as well as that of other philosophical sects, will be found pourtrayed in a very lively and interesting manner in the *Essays* of David Hume.

The second of these principal schools was the *Italian*, founded by Pythagoras, who lived about the year 560 before Jesus Christ. He left Samos, his native country, and fixed himself in Italy, where he produced a revolution in ideas and in morals. He taught the Metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls from one body to another, which occasioned those of his sect to abstain from the use of meats. The present system of the universe was first conceived by Pythagoras, who held that the Sun was placed in the centre of the planets, which moved in elliptical orbits round it. This system was, however,

regarded as a chimera, till it was verified in the sixteenth century of our era. The Italian school produced four sects, which were more celebrated for their singularity than for their justness or utility; that of Heraclitus, of which misanthropy formed the chief characteristic: he wept at every thing. Democritus, on the contrary, the most celebrated of the Eleatic sect, laughed at every thing, banished care, and inculcated indifference. Virtue, according to him, does not differ from vice, only in the opinions of men: He believed that the soul perishes with the body. He did not admit a supreme author of the universe, but substituted the doctrine of a concussion of atoms, which, by their rencontre in a grand vacuum, composed the organization of the world: he moreover maintained that every thing is incomprehensible, and that he was not certain of his own existence. Pyrrho has given his name to the Pyrrhoneans or Sceptics; that is to say, those who doubted every thing, because in every thing they found reasons for affirming and for denying: he held that there was no difference between life and death. Epicurus has given his name to the sect of Epicureans, the basis of whose principles may be found in the doctrine of Democritus. Epicurus propagated the system of atoms, did not believe that the Deity interfered in the affairs of this world, and placed happiness, or the supreme good, in voluptuousness. But, in truth, many contend that Epicurus merely alluded to a voluptuousness of soul; namely, those delicious emotions which arise from the practice of virtue and are the sweetest recompense of good actions. Be this as it may, his disciples, abandoned to their natural inclinations, exempt, by their principles, from the restraint of religion and a belief in God, have recognised nothing but a sensual

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voluptuousness, by which they have discredited their master and ruined his doctrines.

Before I close this letter, it may be proper to remark, that the prevailing opinion is, that the Greeks received the germs of their knowledge from the Egyptians. Lesage asserts, that a French inquirer into the soundness of this opinion, of the name of Petit-Radel, has given to the institute of France several lectures to prove that Greece was civilized a long time before the arrival of colonies from Egypt; and by the analogy of certain fortifications, (between which and those of the Peruvians he has also discovered a singular identity,) Petit-Radel does not despair of being enabled to trace up an original connexion between the Greeks and the Hyperborean nations, who inhabited the northern parts of Europe and Asia. In corroboration of this new theory, I will add that De Pauw, (quoting Diodorus,) states, that no passage of Athenian history discovers the slightest proof that any colony ever arrived there from Egypt. To terminate this matter, (continues De Pauw,) we have the testimony of Plato, who affirms that not a single drop of Egyptian blood ever circulated in the veins of the Athenians. C.



LETTER X.

The Persians—Macedonians—Expedition of Alexander the Great—and the Quarrels of his Generals.

THE Persian monarchy lasted for about two hundred years; from the year 538 to the year 336

before Christ. It was founded by Cyrus, who, by inheritance or by conquest, reunited under one head the kingdoms of Persia, of Media, of Lydia, of Babylon, and of Nineveh. Historians do not agree in the circumstances of the birth, actions, virtues, and death of this prince. Those who have undertaken to describe him are Herodotus, Ctesias, and Xenophon. Herodotus and Xenophon are altogether opposed to each other in their recital of the leading incidents of the reign of Cyrus. Cicero thinks that we ought not to regard the work of Xenophon as a genuine history, but merely as an historical romance, wherein the author has painted his hero, not what he is, but what he ought to be. Yet the facilities which Xenophon enjoyed of obtaining information from an authentic source at the court of the younger Cyrus, and the well-known partiality of the Greeks in general against the Persians, have induced many to prefer Xenophon, who is favorable to them, to Herodotus, who seems on all occasions to decry them too much.

The Persian dominion extended from the Indus to the Euxine and the Mediterranean, and from the Jaxartes and the Caspian sea to Ethiopia, Arabia, and the Persian Gulf. Babylon, of course, became a principal city of the Persian monarchy, Cyrus having made himself master of it by turning the course of the Euphrates. It may not be amiss to mention here, what might have been more properly inserted under the description of the Assyrian monarchy, namely, that in the time of Semiramis, or of her immediate successors, two magnificent palaces, erected on the opposite shores of the Euphrates, communicated with each other by a subterranean vault constructed under the river; in one of these palaces were to be found those suspended gardens, so famous among the Greeks. Susa, Ecbatana, and Persepolis, were ce-

lebrated cities of Persia, and occasionally the residence of the royal family. Passagada was the place where the kings were usually crowned.

The chief occurrences of Persian history, exclusive of the expeditions of Darius and Xerxes into Greece, and the retreat of the ten thousand Greeks under Xenophon, (which I have already noticed,) are, the incidents connected with the life of the founder Cyrus; one of which was the overthrow and captivity of Cræsus, the most wealthy of mankind, who marched with four hundred and twenty thousand infantry and sixty thousand cavalry to oppose Cyrus, who had only two hundred thousand under his command, with which he defeated Cræsus and condemned him to be burnt alive, but afterwards reversed the sentence and made Cræsus his friend, on the captive's having recited to Cyrus certain observations of Solon relative to human happiness.

Expedition of Alexander—Macedonian Monarchy.

The Persian empire became extinct by the death of Darius Codomanus, who was attacked by Alexander the Great: It was succeeded by the Macedonian monarchy, which was founded by Alexander. This conqueror was the son of Philip, king of Macedon, and of Olympias his wife. Philip was a sagacious, artful, intriguing, and valiant prince; and by fraud and force had subjugated the states of Greece to his control. It was against the machinations of Philip that Demosthenes, the illustrious Athenian orator, distinguished himself. He roused his fellow-citizens to a sense of their danger; and, if his courage had been equal to his eloquence, he might, perhaps, have saved the sinking fortunes of his country: But in the battle of Cheronea he fled like a coward, and the

Greeks lost their independence. The ambition of Philip was the cause of some of the best orations of Demosthenes, which are hence called *Philippics*. This prince had prepared to invade Asia at the head of an army of Macedonians and Greeks, when he was suddenly slain by an assassin, at the instigation, as has been supposed, of his wife Olympias, who was jealous of him. Alexander, who succeeded Philip, determined to prosecute the projected enterprise of his father, and at an age not exceeding twenty-five, he undertook that expedition which has inspired posterity with so much admiration on account of its brilliancy and extent. He left the shores of Greece, accompanied by only thirty thousand foot and five thousand horse, one month's provisions, and seventy talents, or about fifty thousand dollars. Such were the means by which he sallied forth to conquer the richest and most powerful empire of the world.

The first exploit of the Macedonian hero was the passage of the Granicus, which river he crossed in the face of one hundred and ten thousand Persians, commanded by Memnon of Rhodes, the wisest and the most able of the generals of Darius. Twenty thousand of the enemy fell in the action, and Asia Minor became the fruit of this first victory. Sardis, Ephesus, Miletus, and Halicarnassus, were taken or submitted: He entered Gordium, where it is said he cut the celebrated knot, upon which, according to the oracle, depended the dominion of the world. Traversing Phrygia and Cappadocia, he marched upon Tarsus, where he was seized with a dangerous malady in consequence of his having, when over-heated, bathed in the river Cydnus. It was on this occasion that he exhibited that celebrated trait of magnanimity in an interview with his physician Philip, when he took with confidence and without hesitation the un-

known potion which Philip offered to him, notwithstanding he had been previously apprised that it was intended to poison him. The battle of the Granicus took place in the year 334 before Christ.

Alexander had scarcely recovered when he pursued Darius, who had reassembled an immense force, and gained over the Persian king the renowned battle of Issus, in the defiles of Cilicia, which separate Asia Minor from Syria. It is said that the Persians lost in this action one hundred thousand men; the mother, the wife, and the children of Darius being made prisoners, and himself escaping with difficulty from the hands of the conqueror. After this victory Alexander marched through Syria; took Damascus, full of the immense treasures of Darius; destroyed Tyre, which he carried by assault after a difficult siege of seven months; entered Jerusalem; sacked Gaza; compelled Egypt to submit; visited in the desert the temple of Jupiter Ammon, where he caused himself, (by bribing the priests,) to be acknowledged as the son of that god; and founded the well-known city of Alexandria.

Alexander departed from Egypt in search of Darius, who had vainly made several times the most advantageous propositions of peace. Darius assembled all the forces of his empire on the eastern shore of the Tigris, the most rapid of all the rivers of Asia. Alexander crossed the Euphrates and the Tigris and arrived within view of the Persian army between Gaugamel and Arbela. It was on this famous field that the fate of Asia was decided. The Macedonian king, at the head of forty thousand foot and from seven to eight thousand horse, combated six hundred and fifty thousand Persians, of whom were slain, it is said, three hundred thousand men. This is the battle that destroyed the Persian monarchy, made Darius a fugi-

tive, and rendered Alexander immortal. It was fought in the year 331 before Jesus Christ. Babylon and Susa became the first fruits of this victory, as did Persepolis, to which, in a moment of excessive drunkenness, he set fire, at the instigation, as we are told, of the courtesan Thais.

Alexander did not relinquish his pursuit of Darius, who eventually fell a victim to the most infamous treason. The satrap Bessus, one of his officers, seized upon him for the purpose of making terms for himself with the victor, or, in case of a reverse of fortune, to place himself on the throne of Persia. Perpetually harassed by the enemy, this traitor basely assassinated his sovereign who refused to follow him. Alexander, afflicted at the death of Darius, immediately went in quest of his murderer; but despairing of overtaking him at that time, he repaired to Hecatompolis, the capital of Parthia, where he reposed his troops. Soon after, however, he resumed his victorious march, entered Hyrcania, and subjugated all the nations to the south of the Oxus. It is there where the scene of his interview, (no doubt fabulous,) with Thalestris, queen of the Amazons, is placed. She had come a great distance, it seems, to contemplate the man whose fame filled the whole world. It is said by some, that on seeing him she expressed her contempt at the smallness of his stature; by others, that her desire was to leave posterity by Alexander. Be it as it may, this is most certain and unfortunate for his glory, that about this time he caused Philotas and Parmenio his father to be put to death; the one having until that time been his friend; the other the most illustrious, the most zealous, the most faithful of his generals. The son was put to death under the pretext of a conspiracy; and the father was most vilely assassinated for fear he should avenge the death of his

son. These are the first stains upon the memory of Alexander; and, dark as they may be considered, they are, unhappily, neither the only ones nor the worst. This prince, obstinately bent on the punishment of Bessus, crossed the country, rendered sterile by nature or devastated by the enemy, who believed himself safe from the Macedonians on account of the deserts. The constancy of Alexander surmounted every obstacle. He finally got possession of Bessus, who was delivered up by his own partizans in Sogdiana, and found in a terrible death the punishment of a regicide. He was reconducted to Ecbatana, where, after having been mutilated, he was fastened alive to four trees, which by force had been bent together, and which, returning to their natural position with a spring, tore asunder the limbs of the culprit.

Alexander at length arrived at the Jaxartes, which formed the northern bounds of the Persian empire. He seized Cyropolis, which was founded by Cyrus, crossed the river and defeated the Barbarians who inhabited the opposite shore. He afterwards abandoned this route, for the purpose of employing himself in more solid enterprises, and turned his mind and his march towards the regions of India. At Maracanda, the capital of Sogdiana, he slew, in a fit of drunkenness, old Clytus. This brave veteran, brother of the prince's nurse, expired under his blows after having saved the life of Alexander in the first of his victories, when crossing the Granicus.

The Macedonian monarch now crossed the Indus, and arrived on the Indian territory. Taxiles, a king of that country, received him in a friendly manner; but another, named Porus, opposed him courageously. More brave than fortunate, this last was defeated on the other side of the Hydaspes, and fell into the

power of Alexander, whose esteem he secured by his valor.

Always victorious, and possessing the greatest avidity for conquests, Alexander directed his steps towards the Ganges, with the intention of crossing it and penetrating to the eastern boundaries of the earth. But his soldiers, frightened by the difficulties and the deserts of this unknown country, refused to follow him, and compelled him to renounce his intention. He returned upon the Indus by Oxydrace, at the siege of which he was near losing his life, having mounted the walls alone and leaped into the city, where he was under the necessity of defending himself single-handed against a multitude of enemies, until his soldiers had forced the gates and come to his succour.

Alexander afterwards descended the Indus and arrived within sight of the ocean, where he observed with surprise the new and curious spectacle of its flux and reflux, to which he was a stranger as well as those who were with him. He then took the road to Babylon; leaving his fleet, under the command of Nearchus, to navigate an unknown sea. It arrived, however, in safety, at the port of Harmosias, situated at the entrance of the Persian gulf.

On his return, Alexander espoused Statira at Persepolis: she was the eldest daughter of Darius. He gave her youngest sister to Hephestion, the most beloved of all his favorites, who died soon afterwards from an excess of intemperance. The victorious, the great, the immortal Alexander, speedily followed him, a victim also to a shameful death. He died in the thirty-second year of his age, at Babylon, after having made his triumphal entry and exposed the spoils of the East to the view of the ambassadors assembled there from all parts of the earth. Such is the expe-

dition of this great captain, of this celebrated hero ! It is computed that in less than seven years he had caused his army to travel over a space of two thousand leagues or six thousand miles.

Quarrels of the Generals of Alexander.

The conquests of Alexander were, without doubt, a scourge to his people ; but his death was for them a catastrophe still more afflicting. This will be confessed when it is known that the dissensions between the Macedonian officers of the first rank, who survived him, lasted for twenty-four years, and they were distinguished chiefly by bloody battles, pillage, perfidy, and murder.

Alexander would not name his successor for fear he should not be shared ; but at the moment of his death he gave a ring to Perdiccas, who was one of the most celebrated of his generals. In consequence of this circumstance he was nominated by his colleagues regent during the minority of the son of Alexander. He attempted to make use of this title to secure the empire to himself ; but his companions baffled his designs, and he perished two years afterwards, in the year 322 before Christ, being slain in his tent in Egypt, where he waged a fruitless war against Ptolemy.

Antipater was intrusted with the regency after Perdiccas : Epirus in Greece fell to his government : he quelled the revolt of Athens, and was the occasion of the death of Demosthenes the orator. A regency like that of Antipater appears to have been nothing more than a vain title of power, serving as a pretext for quarrels with his colleagues. It was, in effect, for him nothing but a source of expeditions and alarms. When he died he bequeathed the re-

gency to Polysphercon; but reserved the states under his rule for his son Cassander.

Polysphercon, the oldest of Alexander's captains, enjoyed the regency after Antipater. He had a contest with Athens, and occasioned the death of the virtuous Phocion. He recalled Olympias, the mother of Alexander, to the government; and her return was an augmentation of the prevailing troubles. The regency of Polysphercon was one continued scene of terrible warfare between him and Cassander, the son of Antipater. The two rivals both contended that they were the supporters of the interests of the son of Alexander. During their conflicts Olympias was massacred.

Eumenes, of an obscure birth, but to whom Alexander had given the sister of one of his wives in marriage, was one of the most accomplished of the Macedonian chiefs, as well in the qualities of the heart as by his talents for war. He was the most deserving of all the captains of Alexander, but the portion of territory that fell to his share was the worst of all. He had Cappadocia, where, nevertheless, Antigonus would not permit him to establish himself. His life was a perpetual combat: He defeated and killed Craterus, and beat Antipater; but was vanquished, delivered up by treachery to Antigonus, and perished in the year before Christ 315.

Craterus had been a favorite of Alexander, to whom he had always showed himself a rigid and virtuous courtier. He enjoyed such a high reputation among the Macedonians that they were desirous of seeing him succeed Alexander. He allied himself with Antipater, and was beaten and killed by Eumenes in the year before Christ 321.

Antigonus had his partition of empire in Asia: He was the first that took the title of king, and aimed at

universal monarchy. He was ably seconded by his son Demetrius *Polyorces*, (that is, a destroyer of towns,) a prince, whose spirit, gracefulness, courage, and generosity, cast a peculiar lustre over this melancholy period of atrocities. The overgrown power of Antigonus alarmed the other generals of Alexander, who united against him, fought the famous battle of the Ipsus, where he was beaten and killed 301 years before Christ. This action decided the Macedonian empire, which was definitively divided between the four great chiefs who had combined against Antigonus. The life of Demetrius, after the death of his father, was a succession of military adventures, which evinced the ardor of his courage more than the wisdom of his policy. He conquered and lost provinces, was for a moment king of Macedonia, and died in the chains of Seleucus in the year before Christ 285.

The four kingdoms that grew out of these dissensions, were Egypt, Syria, Macedonia, and Thrace. Ptolemy, who is believed to have been the natural brother of Alexander, and who was one of his most intimate favorites, found himself, at the death of the conqueror, master of Egypt. He was one of the finest characters of these tempestuous times. Mild, humane, and wise, he encouraged the arts and sciences in Egypt, and consulted the happiness of the people. In the long quarrel for the succession to Alexander, his rivals could never make any impression upon him, and he always had the address to keep the war out of Egypt. From the assistance which he gave to the people of Rhodes against Demetrius, he was called *Soter*, or Saviour. Ptolemy wrote an account of the campaigns of Alexander, which has been unhappily lost. This prince was the founder of the Egyptian monarchy, and his family reigned for two hundred

and fifty years, ending in the person of the elegant Cleopatra, in the time of Augustus Cæsar.

Seleucus, one of the most meritorious captains of Alexander, established himself at Babylon, where, after many vicissitudes of fortune, he founded the empire of upper Asia, generally known by the name of the kingdom of Syria. He is the head of the Seleucidæ, who reigned in the age of Pompey, when that general reduced their states into the form of a Roman province. Seleucus built Antioch, (which, for a long time, was considered the capital of the east,) Seleucia, Laodicea, and nearly forty other cities.

Lysimachus, who took a part in all the troubles of the time, was cruel and avaricious. After the battle of Ipsus, he took for his portion Thrace, Bythinia, &c. He seized upon Macedonia, where he reigned ten years and rendered himself odious. He was killed in Asia by Seleucus 282 years before Christ. At his death his kingdom was dismembered, which occasioned many calamities, and gave rise to new states, the whole of which, however, were eventually incorporated with the Roman empire.

Cassander, the son of Antipater, succeeded his father in the government of Macedonia, and was a conspicuous character in the conflicts of that day.—He made war upon Polysphercon, seized upon Athens, where he established Demetrius Phaletrus, destroyed Olympias the mother of Alexander, put to death his wife Roxana and the children which Alexander had by her. Coming at length to the throne of Macedon by the force of his crimes, the battle of Ipsus fixed him there. He died in the year 297 before Jesus Christ, leaving, by a relative of Alexander, two sons, who perished unhappily. In these last was extinguished the legitimate race of Philip; of that Macedonian hero, whose son, still greater than his father

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has filled the earth with his name, and seemed for a moment to give laws to the universe. Nearly forty years had expired ; and of this fine lustre of glory and of fortune ; of the employment of so much genius, of labor, and of victory, what remained ? Philip, Alexander, their wives, their children, perished by violent deaths ; their vast empire was no more ; and the wrecks of it only served as aliment for the discord of princes and for the misfortunes of the people.

The historians who treat of Alexander are, among the ancients, Quintus Curius Rufus, who is admired for the elegance of his style, but is condemned for his anachronisms and geographical and historical mistakes. His history was divided into ten books, of which the two first, the end of the fifth, and the beginning of the sixth, are lost : and Arrianus, a philosopher of Nicomedia, and priest of Ceres and Proserpine. He composed seven books upon the expedition of Alexander, and these are considered the most accurate in relation to this prince. Arrian was cotemporaneous with Marcus Aurelius. Among the moderns, Rollin may be safely consulted. C.

LETTER XI.

The Romans.

THE Romans having conquered and governed the world, their history includes that of almost all other states. In fact, the greater part of modern nations, their laws, their knowledge, their literature, and their

monuments, may be traced up directly to these masters of the universe. The duration of the Roman power, or that of its history, embraces a period of about twelve centuries, from the foundation of Rome by Romulus to the destruction of the western empire under Romulus Augustulus. This immense interval may be divided into three grand and distinct epochs, that is to say, 1. The kings : 2. The Republic : 3. The Emperors.

Rome, under her kings, endured for the space of two hundred and forty-four years. In the year 753 before Jesus Christ, Romulus, at the head of a band of robbers, founded the city and established general rules of policy for the government of his adherents. He was succeeded in 715 by Numa Pompilius, who instituted religious worship for his subjects. After him, in 672, reigned Tullus Hostilius, who consolidated the work of his two predecessors. Ancus Marcius came to the throne in the year 640, and extended the territory of Rome by his conquests. In 616 Tarquin the elder was king, and embellished the city. To him, in the year 578, succeeded Servius Tullius, who created the Roman aristocracy, and by his measures prepared the way for the republic.—The seventh and last king was Tarquin the Proud, who was expelled, and on his expulsion royalty was abolished.

The wars of the Romans, under their kings, were, that which took place in 750 against the Sabines, on account of the treacherous rape committed by the soldiers of Romulus on the women of the latter, who had been invited to be spectators of some Roman sports, in the midst of which they were seized and borne off by violence. The war was conducted on the part of the Romans by Romulus, and on that of the Sabines by Tatius, and ended in the union of

the two people. Tatius consented to come with his subjects and reside in Rome, where he shared the royal authority with the founder of the city. The second war occurred in the year 667, under Tullus Hostilius, against the people of Alba, which ended in the destruction of the latter. It was in this war that the famous combat took place between three Romans and three Albans, the Horatii and Curiatii, on the success of which victory depended. Two of the Horatii were killed in the encounter; but the third, combining artifice with valor, slew the Curiatii one after another. The conqueror, returning home, was reproached by his sister for the murder of one the Curiatii, to whom she was engaged in marriage, whereupon he slew her; for which he was condemned to death by the Roman people; but, in consideration of his services to the state, the punishment was commuted to that of passing under the yoke. The third war of the Romans took place in the year 600 against their neighbors, under Tarquin the elder, in which many victories were gained, and the ceremony of the *Triumph* was instituted. In the year 509 the war against Tarquin the Proud commenced, who had been compelled to leave the city on account of the rape of Lucretia by Sextus, the son of Tarquin.—The story of the rape is briefly this:

A number of young Roman noblemen were assembled at Ardea, among whom were Tarquinius Collatinus and the son of Tarquin the Proud. Boasting of the domestic virtues of their wives, they resolved to leave the camp and go to Rome to verify to each other the praises which they had respectively lavished upon their ladies. Lucretia was the wife of Collatinus, who had the pleasure to find her, whilst the wives of the other Romans were involved in the riot and dissipation of a feast, employed in the midst of her fe-

male servants and assisting in their labors. Sextus was struck with the beauty and innocence of Lucretia, cherished his flame, and, afterwards withdrawing from the camp, went to her house ; where he was kindly received. He stole at night to her chamber, but the lady refused to his entreaties what he extorted from her by threats. She yielded to her ravisher when he threatened to murder her and to slay one of her slaves and put him in her bed, that this apparent adultery might seem to have met with the punishment it deserved. Lucretia in the morning sent for her husband and her father, revealed to them the indignity she had received, conjured them to avenge her wrongs, and stabbed herself with a dagger, which she had concealed under her clothes. The body of the virtuous Lucretia was exposed to the view of the Senate, and a rebellion ensued, which was inflamed by the harangues of Brutus, who was present at the tragical end of this noble lady. Tarquin was expelled ; his various attempts to regain the throne were ably resisted by Lucretius, Brutus, and Collatinus ; kingly government was extinguished ; and the republic was founded.

Notwithstanding that the atrocious crime of Sextus was the immediate cause of this revolution, the truth is that the public mind at Rome had been long prepared for the event by the conduct of his father and of some other of the kings. The leading Republicans only waited for a pretext to abolish royalty, which never fails, sooner or later, to become odious to a wise and spirited people.

Rome, as a republic, endured for the space of about five hundred years. The history of this period is exceedingly interesting, and admits of two distinct divisions, namely : that of foreign affairs, and that of domestic occurrences. Always at war and always

victorious, the republic marched from success to success, invading countries, destroying nations, and subjugating people; till, in fine, she became mistress of the world, when she fell under the weight of her own power, and yielded herself a victim to the ambition of her generals. At home, two parties continually divided the republic: The *Patricians*, who wished to retain all the power of the state in their own hands; and the *Plebeians*, who demanded and acquired, almost every day, some new right. These pledges of their liberty increased until they eventually became, in the hands of cunning and able men, the instruments of their servitude. Thus Rome, by having conquered too much, subdued herself; and the Romans, by increasing their liberty to licentiousness, fell into slavery. A striking example that all excesses ought to be avoided.

The principal Dignities of Rome under the Republic.

The Dictator was a magistrate supreme, sovereign, and absolute. There was no stated time for his election; but he was chosen accidentally, in crises of great danger, and only for six months. His first act was to nominate for himself a first lieutenant, under the title of general of cavalry. All the authorities ceased on his nomination, except that of the tribunes. He named the ordinary consuls. The dictator was preceded by twenty-four lictors with the *fascēs*: T. Latius Flavius was the first Dictator, in the year 498 before Jesus Christ. The dignity ceased under Augustus, who refused it.

The consuls were the two first magistrates of the republic. They were elected annually by the people; conducted the armies; presided in the Senate, and

regulated the affairs of the republic : they were preceded by twelve lictors. It is to the *yearly election* of consuls that Montesquieu chiefly attributes the glory and the triumphs of Rome. L. Junius Brutus and L. Tarquinius Collatinus were the first consuls, in the year 508 before Jesus Christ. This dignity ceased under Justinian, who abolished it.

The Censors were two magistrates, elected in the first instance for five years, but afterwards for eighteen months only. Their functions were, to enumerate the citizens and their estates, and to be vigilant in the preservation of morals and the maintenance of the laws. They purified the Senate by the expulsion of such members as had rendered themselves unworthy of a seat there, and, in effect, corrected abuses of every kind among every class of citizens. The registers and public acts were in their keeping. L. Papirius Mugillanus and Sempronius Atratinus were the first Censors, in the year 444 before Jesus Christ. This dignity was merged in that of the emperors and their attributes.

The *Ædiles Major* were two magistrates, to whom were intrusted the police of the city. They had a superintending authority over entertainments and games ; were the inspectors of public buildings, and exercised vigilance for the safety of private ones. It was their duty to see that the highways were repaired ; to regulate the standard of weights and measures ; to watch over the supplies of provisions necessary for the city, &c. &c. They were called *Ædiles major*, to distinguish them from those magistrates of the same name who were their assistants for the inspection and execution of a good police.

The *Prætors* were two annual magistrates, whose functions were principally to administer justice.— One of them had cognizance of differences between

citizens, and was called *Prætor Urbanus*; the other had cognizance of differences between strangers, and was called *Prætor Peregrinus*. The Prætors, besides, presided at public festivals, and took care of the sacrifices. Their office was the second dignity of Rome. Their number varied much towards the end of the republic and under the emperors. Sometimes they continued in place after their year, and then they took the name of *Pro-Prætors*.

These five magistrates, of whom I have spoken, were called the *major* magistracy, or the magistracy *curules*, because those who exercised the offices in question had the right to sit, during the performance of their functions, on a high seat of ivory, called the *curule chair*.

The Tribunes were magistrates of the people, charged to watch over their rights and liberty. They were ten in number, and were changed annually.— Their power was very great, and if abused exceedingly dangerous. Their persons were inviolable and sacred. Their ambitious attacks upon the Senate, and the resistance of the latter, furnish a key to all the intestine troubles which agitated Rome under the Republic. It cannot be doubted, however, that their authority, when virtuously exercised, was a great check upon the corruptions of the state.

The Quæstors were annual magistrates, intrusted with the public treasure. It was their duty also to receive ambassadors, kings, &c. and to make presents to them, &c.

The Pro-Consuls were magistrates sent to govern the Roman provinces, with consular authority.

Emperor, or *Imperator*, was, under the Republic, nothing more than an honorable and accidental denomination. After a victory the soldiers were accustomed to salute their generals on the field of bat-

tle with the title of *Imperator*. In the end, after the fall of the Republic, the word took the signification of a sovereign chief and an absolute monarch.

G.

LETTER XII.

The Romans—Continued.

During the space of five hundred years, the wars of the Republic were numerous; and their consequences advantageous and splendid. I proceed to relate them; to mark the incidents which they produced; to designate the great men who flourished during their prevalence, and to state their political results.

The banished Tarquin found a supporter in Porsenna, the king of Etruria, and in the year 507 before Jesus Christ, war took place between him and the Romans. The chief events of this contest were, the actions of Horatius Cocles, who singly opposed the whole army of Porsenna at the head of a bridge, whilst his countrymen in his rear were cutting off the communication with the opposite shore. The bridge being destroyed, Cocles, although he was wounded, leaped into the Tiber and swam across it with his armor: for his eminent services he had a brazen statue raised to him in the temple of Vulcan, by the consul Publicola: of Mutius Scaevola, who disguised himself in the habit of a Tuscan, and, speaking the language fluently, he gained an easy introduction into the camp of Porsenna, and afterwards into the royal tent; Porsenna and his secretary were sitting alone when Mutius entered; the latter, mistak-

ing the secretary for the king, rushed upon him and stabbed him to the heart; unable to escape, Mutius was seized and brought before the king; to the multiplied inquiries of the courtiers he gave no answer, only telling them that he was a Roman; and, as a proof of his fortitude, laid his right hand on an altar of burning coals, and looking sternly at the king, without uttering a groan, he boldly declared that three hundred young Romans like himself had conspired against his life, and entered his camp in disguise, determined either to destroy him or to perish in the attempt; this intrepid declaration alarmed Porsenna, who made peace with the Romans and retired from their city; Mutius obtained the surname of Scaevola, because he had lost the use of his right hand by burning it in the presence of the Etrurian king: that of Clelia, a Roman virgin, one of the hostages which Porsenna had demanded as one of the conditions of the peace; escaping from her guards, and pointing out the way to the rest of her female companions, she swam over the Tyber on horseback, amidst showers of darts from the enemy, and presented herself to the Consul; fearful of the consequences of detaining her, the Consul sent her back, when Porsenna, not to be outdone in generosity, gave liberty to her, and permitted her to choose such of the hostages of the other sex (for there were in all ten young men and ten virgins) as she should think fit to attend her; she, with great modesty, chose the youngest, as least capable of sustaining the rigors of slavery: the battle of Regillæ was another remarkable occurrence of this war; it was fought about twenty miles from Rome, between twenty-four thousand Romans and forty thousand Etrurians, who were headed by the Tarquins; the Romans obtained the victory, and scarce ten thousand of the enemy escap-

ed from the field of battle : the great men of the day were Brutus, Collatinus, Aruns, Valerius, Publicola, and Lartius : the consequences of the war were the abolition of royalty, the consolidation of the republic, and the establishment of the dictatorship. In the year 493 before Christ, civil broils broke out among the people, who revolted against the power of the aristocracy, and the Plebeians, under the conduct of one of their order, named Sicinius Bellutus, retired to Mons Sacer, on the banks of the river Anio, about three miles from Rome, with the intention of forming a new state. It was on this occasion, after all other arguments had failed, that Menenius Agrippa, a great favorite of the people, addressed to them the well known fable of the belly and members, which is recorded by Livy : this had the desired effect, and the Plebeians, on the consent of the Senate to the institution of the tribunate, returned to their duty : the principal cause of these commotions was the debts of the commonalty, which were finally abolished by the Senate : the chief personages of this period of anarchy were Appius and Menenius Agrippa. The revolt of Coriolanus occurred in the year before Christ 487 ; he fled to the Volscians, joined their leader Tullius Attius, advanced and besieged Rome, which was only saved from destruction by the prayers and tears of Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, and the entreaties of his wife Volumnia, her two children, and a long train of weeping females ; Coriolanus, moved to compassion, raised the siege of Rome, and was afterwards slain in an insurrection of the Volscians, excited against him by Tullus, who had long envied his glory. In the year 476, the republic was engaged in a war with the Volsci, the Æqui, and other of their neighbors ; many fortunate battles took place, and the Romans enlarged their territory by

their conquests ; Menenius and Fabius were the heroes of the day. In 448 the Decemvirs were expelled and the Decemvirate was abolished, in consequence of an attempt by Appius to dishonor Virginia, the beautiful daughter of Virginius ; the maiden's honor was preserved by her father's stabbing her in the presence of the people ; Appius killed himself, and his adherents were compelled to fly from the city. In 403, the Romans made war upon the Veians, and after a siege of ten years made themselves masters of the city of Veii : Camillus was the distinguished personage of the time, and the republic experienced considerable aggrandizement. In the year 388 the Gauls invaded Italy, and took Rome, under the conduct of Brënnus ; the city was eventually regained by the intrepid courage of Manlius, and the patriotic decision of Camillus : this war ended in the destruction of the invading Gauls. In 341 the Romans waged war with the Samnites, which lasted nearly seventy-one years, procured for the republic twenty-four triumphs, and Rome, by degrees, approached to the dominion of Italy ; Papirius, Pontius, and Curius, were the principal characters that arose during these contests. In the year 279 the Tarentine war commenced, which endured for about ten years ; Pyrrhus and his minister Cyneas, and Fabricius and his remarkable virtue, are the objects worthy of notice in this conflict : Rome now became the mistress of all Italy. In 264 began the first Punic war, and continued for twenty-four years, in which the Romans fought their first naval battle : this period was marked by the defeat of Regulus ; and Duilius, Regulus, Xantippus, Lutatius, and Amilcar Barcas, on one side or the other, were the most remarkable persons of the time ; the contest ended in the acquisition of Sicily by the Romans, who had now

got a fleet and enjoyed additional celebrity. In 231 the Illyrian war occurred, in which Rome was, as usual, successful, having subdued and disgraced Teuta, the queen of Illyria; the Romans were in this enterprise approaching Greece. In 226 the republic made war upon Cisalpine Gaul, during which was fought the battle of Clusium; the Romans crossed the Po and subjugated the country. The second Punic war broke out in the year 219, and continued for seventeen years; it was distinguished by the expedition of Hannibal, the siege of Syracuse, the fate of Archimedes, and the battle of Zama; Fabius, Marcellus, Scipio Africanus the first, and Lelius, were the the chief men of the day; the result of the contest was the destruction of Carthage and the acquisition of Spain. In 201, Rome carried her arms against Philip and the Ætolians, Perseus, and Antiochus, and the battles of Cynocephalus, Thermopylæ, Magnesia, and Pydna, were fought; Flaminius Acilius, Scipio Asiaticus, Paulus Emilius, and Licinius, made a great figure in these wars, which ended, in the Romans conquering Macedonia and penetrating into Asia. The third Punic war began in 149, and continued for three years; it eventuated in the siege and capture of Carthage; Rome was left without a rival: the shining personages of this period were Scipio Africanus the second, Lelius, Polybius, and Cato the Censor. The Achæan war commenced in the year 147, in which Metellus and Mummius distinguished themselves. Corinth was destroyed and Greece was conquered by the Romans. In the year 141, the republic was engaged in the Numantian war, which continued for eight years, and in which Scipio Africanus the second was the principal actor; it ended in the destruction of Numantia. In 133 Rome experienced great civil trou-

G

bles, the question of the Agrarian law was agitated ; the Gracchii and Scipio Nasica were the great men of the time ; the commotions ended in the massacre of the Gracchii. In the year 113 the Romans waged war against Jugurtha for the space of seven years ; it was marked by the success of Metellus ; and Marius, Sylla, and Bocchus, were persons of note during its continuance ; it concluded in the conquest of Numidia. A seven years war next ensued between the Romans and the Cimbri, in which Marius, Catullus, and Sylla, rendered themselves conspicuous ; the Cimbri were totally vanquished.— In the year 91, before Christ, the allies of Rome revolted against her, and for three years a social war raged with fury ; Drusus, Marius, Sylla, Pompey, all distinguished themselves on the occasion ; the war ended in the allies becoming citizens of Rome. In the year 88, a civil war broke out between Marius and Sylla, which endured for thirteen years ; the most frightful proscriptions took place during this period, and Sylla was made perpetual dictator ; Sylla, Marius, and his sons, Cinna, Sertorius, and Perpenna, were leading men of the day : this is the real epoch of the fall of the republic. In the year 88 also a war was undertaken against Mithridates, which was not terminated for twenty-six years : during this conflict Athens was taken by the Roman arms, and the battles of Cheronea and Orchomenus were fought : the chief characters of this period were Sylla, Lucullus, Pompey, Tigranes, Pharnaces, and Monimia : the war ended in the conquest of Pontus, Cappadocia, and Syria. The year 73, and the years immediately following, before Christ, were rendered remarkable in the annals of Rome by the revolt of the slaves, the exploits of Spartacus, and the achievements of Crassus and Pompey ; in this contest the slaves were ex-

terminated. In the year 63 the conspiracy of Cataline took place, in which extremity Cicero acquitted himself with great ability, and saved Rome from the lawless designs of the conspirators; Cicero, Cataline, Cæsar, and Clodius, were the most extraordinary individuals of the time. In the year 60 the first triumvirate was formed between Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus; Cæsar, however, triumphed over his rivals in the battles of Pharsalia, of Thapsus, and of Munda, and remained sole master of Rome. A second triumvirate was formed after the death of Cæsar, in the year before Christ 43, between Antony, Lepidus, and Octavius; innumerable proscriptions took place during this period, to which Cicero fell a victim; the battles of Philippi and Actium were fought, and young Octavius, after subduing all his opponents, reigned sole arbiter of the Roman world. He assumed the name of Augustus, and proved himself a statesman of great capacity.

C.

LETTER XIII.

The Romans—Continued.

DURING the five centuries that Rome was governed by the emperors, she was engaged in three wars of a general description. 1. The wars of Europe, against the nations of Germany, upon the Rhine and the Danube: 2. The wars of Asia, against the Parthians and the Persians, upon the Euphrates and the Tigris: 3. The civil wars occasioned by the ambition of particular persons, and the licentiousness of

the soldiery. In the wars of Europe Drusus pushed the Roman arms as far as the Elbe, where he erected a trophy; Varus, with three legions, was massacred by Arminius, a warlike general of the Germans; but Germanicus, in two great battles, repaired this terrible misfortune, and Arminius was poisoned by one of his friends: Trajan conquered and united Dacia to the empire: Marcus Aurelius executed a famous expedition against the Marcomanni: Maximinus penetrated into the heart of Germany: Aurelius was constrained to abandon Dacia: the Barbarians passed the Danube and the Rhine, inundated the empire, overturned it, and established themselves upon its ruins. In the wars of Asia, Trajan undertook his famous expedition against the Parthians, and acquired immense territories, which were abandoned by his successor Adrian: Mesopotamia was added to the empire by Severus and Caracalla: war was maintained against Artaxerxes and Sapor, kings of Persia: the emperor Valerian was made prisoner by Sapor: the history of these Asiatic wars also embraces the interesting fate of Odenatus and Zenobia, the queen of Palmyra: a treaty was concluded under the emperor Dioclesian: Sapor the second, a terrible enemy of the Romans, reigned in this period; and Julian, the Apostate, undertook his celebrated expedition against Persia, in which he lost his life and hazarded that quarter of the empire: Jovian, the successor of Julian, was compelled to abandon Mesopotamia.—The revolts and civil wars of the Roman imperial history are of too complex a nature to be delineated in the space allotted to these letters: the reader will find them satisfactorily portrayed in the celebrated work of Gibbon.

The empire of Rome was above two thousand miles in breadth, from the wall of Antoninus and

the northern limits of Dacia, to Mount Atlas and the Tropic of Cancer, and extended in length more than three thousand miles, from the Western Ocean to the Euphrates: It was situated in the finest part of the temperate zone, between the twenty-fourth and fifty-sixth degrees of northern latitude, and is supposed to have contained above sixteen hundred thousand square miles, for the most part of fertile and well cultivated land. It comprised nine provinces:

1. *Britain*: Subdivided into Britain the first, Britain the second, Flavian-Cesarian, Great-Cesarian, and Valentinian. The principal cities were York, London, Colchester, Bath, Lincoln, Chester, Gloucester, &c. The natives consisted of tribes of Britons; among which were reckoned as many as twenty-two settlements, the inhabitants of which resembled the people of Gaul or of Germany; their origin is not fully ascertained, but it is believed to have been Celtic: the Druids were their priests. The Romans who conquered or united Britain to the empire, were Julius Cæsar, who first invaded it fifty-five years before Jesus Christ: Plantius, under the emperor Claudius, and after him Ostorius Scapula advanced a considerable way in the subjugation of the Island; they both had to contend with the brave Caractacus: Julius Agricola completed the conquest of it. When the Romans, in the decline of their empire, withdrew their legions from Britain, it was invaded by the Saxons and the Angles, who were called in by the natives to defend them from their neighbors the Picts and the Scots; but the invaders conquered for themselves: the Danes desolated the country for some time, and finally established themselves there. The present inhabitants are the English.

2. *Gaul*: Subdivided into Narbonnese, Aquitaine, Lyonnese, Belgic, and Germanic; and many other

inferior divisions. The principal cities were Marseilles, Narbonne, Nîmes, Lyons, Toulouse, Autun, Bordeaux, Rheims, Treves, Mayence, Cologne, &c. Gibbon reckons twelve hundred. The natives were tribes of Gauls, of which there were one hundred and fifty. They spoke the Celtic and followed the religion of the Druids, one class of whom, under the name of Bards, consecrated by their songs the actions of their heroes. The Romans who subdued the country, were Sextus Calvinus, who established himself there, and founded the village of Aix, in Provence, 120 years before Jesus Christ; Domitius and Fabius reduced into a Roman province all the meridional part of the country, and Julius Cæsar united it to the empire as far as the Rhine. The Barbarians who invaded Gaul, were the Franks, who fixed themselves there; the Burgundians, who yielded to the Franks; the Visigoths, the Allemanni, the Huns, the Suevi, the Alains, the Vandals, who marched through the country; the Normans, and the Saracens, who were driven back. The present inhabitants of ancient Gaul are the French and the Swiss.

3. *Italy*: Subdivided into Cisalpine Gaul, Liguria, Etruria, Latium, Campania, Apulia, Lucania, and Brutium. The principal cities were Rome, Milan, Verona, Aquileia, Ravenna, &c. Gibbon reckons eleven hundred and ninety seven. The natives of Italy were the Etruscans, the Sabines, the Latins, the Rutulians, the Volscians, the Hernians, the Equians, the Samnites, and the Tarentines. The conquerors of the country were, the kings, the consuls, and the dictators, during the first 500 years of Rome; for it took that period of time for the Romans to become masters of Italy. The Barbarians who invaded it were the Vandals, the Suevi, the Huns, and the Visigoths, who traversed and desolated it; the Heruli-

ans, the Ostrogoths, and the Lombards, who established themselves in the country. The present inhabitants are, the Italians, the Gétuëse, the Romans, the Tuscans, Neapolitans, &c.

4. *Spain*: Subdivided into *Tarraconensis*, *Lusitania*, and *Boëtica*. The principal cities were, *Cadiz*, *Carthagena*, *Saguntum*, *Numantia*; and *Italica*, founded by *Scipio*, afterwards the birth place of the emperors *Trajan*, *Adrian*, and *Theodosius*. The natives were numerous and diversified tribes of *Celtiberians*, *Cantabrians*, *Vascones*, *Callaïans*, *Asturians*, *Lusitanians*, &c. The Romans who reduced Spain into the form of a province, were *Scipio Africanus* the first, who, by his victories, opened the way for the Roman power: *F. Flaccus* and *S. Gracchus* subdued the *Celtiberians*; *Scipio Africanus* the second, conquered *Numantia*; and *Augustus* subjugated the *Cantabrians*. The Barbarians who invaded Spain, were the *Alains* and the *Suevi*, who established themselves there; they were destroyed by the *Visigoths*, who yielded in their turn to the *Moors* or *Saracens*. The *Vandals* merely passed through the country, without making any stay. The present inhabitants of ancient Spain, are the *Spaniards* and the *Portuguese*.

5. *Illyria*: Subdivided into *Rhætia*, *Noricum*, *Pannonia*, *Dalmatia*, *Dacia*, *Mœsia*, *Thrace*, *Macedonia*, and *Greece*. The principal cities were *Adrianople*, *Byzantium*, (since *Constantinople*,) *Athens*, &c. The natives were many tribes of *Germans*, the *Barbarians* of *Dalmatia*, *Thrace*, *Dacia*, &c. as also the *Macedonians* and the *Greeks*. The Romans who assisted in forming *Illyria* into a province, were *Paulus Emilius*, who subdued *Macedonia*; *Metellus* and *Mummius*, who reduced *Greece*; *Tiberius*, who conquered a part of *Illyria* proper, &c. and *Trajan*, who

acquired Dacia. The Barbarians who invaded it, were the Huns, the Alains, the Visigoths, the Ostrogoths, the Gepides, the Lombards, the Avars, &c. The present inhabitants are, the Bavarians, the Austrians, the Hungarians, the Dalmatians, the Greeks, the Turks, &c.

6. *Asia Minor* : Subdivided into Asia Minor Proper, Bythinia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, Pontus, and Mesopotamia. The principal cities were Nicomedia, Pergamus, Smyrna, Laodicea, Ephesus, Miletus, Troy, Heraclea, and Sardis. The natives were the Trojans, the Lydians, the Phrygians, the Persians, and in general the fragments of the ancient Assyrian, Median, and Babylonian population. The Romans who secured this province to the empire, were Scipio Asiaticus, who subdued it as far as Mount Taurus ; Attalus and Prusias bequeathed to Rome Pergamus and Bythinia ; Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey, subjugated Pontus, Cappadocia, and Armenia. The Barbarians who invaded Asia Minor, were the Saracens, the Tartars, the Turks, and, in general, all those Barbarians who came from the eastern parts of Asia. The present inhabitants are Turks.

7. *Syria* : Subdivided into Syria proper, Phœnicia, and Palestine. The principal cities were, Antioch, Damascus, Jerusalem, Palmyra, &c. The natives were, the Syrians, the Tyrians, the Phœnicians, the Jews or Hebrews, &c. The Romans who united it to the empire, were Pompey, who put an end to the kingdom of Syria ; and Vespasian and Titus, who reduced the Jews. The Barbarians who invaded it were the Saracens, the Turks, &c. The present inhabitants are Turks.

8. *Egypt* : The Romans subdivided this province into a great number of districts. The principal cities were Alexandria, Berenice, Syene, Thebes, Coptos,

&c. The natives were the Egyptians, a people among the most ancient, and the first who cultivated the sciences. Pompey and Cæsar, one after the other, had Egypt at their disposal ; and Octavius (afterwards Augustus) reduced it into the form of a Roman province. The Barbarians who invaded it were the Saracens, the Turks, &c. The present inhabitants are the Turks, the Mamelukes, the Copts, the Arabs, &c.

9. *Africa* : Subdivided into Lybia, Africa Proper, Numidia, and Mauritania. The principal cities were, Tingis, Cesarea, Hippo, Utica, Carthage, Cyrene, &c. Gibbon reckons three hundred in all. The natives were the Lybians, the Africans, the Carthaginians, the Numidians, (esteemed the best horsemen of their time,) the Mauritanians, &c. The Romans who subjugated Africa were, Scipio Africanus the second, who destroyed Carthage ; Metellus, Marius, Sylla, and Cæsar ; and Appian bequeathed his kingdom of Cyrene. ' This province was invaded by the Saracens and the Turks, The present inhabitants are, the Moors, the Algerines, the Tunisians, the Tripolitans, and the Turks.

The total number of subjects who acknowledged the laws of Rome, of citizens, of provincials, and of slaves, from the imperfect calculation that can now be made, would rise to about one hundred and twenty millions of persons. It forms the most numerous society that has ever been united under the same system of government

The constitution of the military force with which the Romans achieved and maintained their conquests, deserves some notice. I shall take the description of the imperial in preference to that of the republican legion, because discipline may well be supposed to have reached its highest point of perfection in the

time of the emperors. The heavy armed infantry, which composed the principal strength of the legion, was divided into ten cohorts, and fifty-five companies, under the orders of a corresponding number of tribunes and centurions. The first cohort, which always claimed the post of honor and the custody of the eagle, was formed of one thousand one hundred and five soldiers, the most approved for valor and fidelity: the remaining nine cohorts consisted each of five hundred and fifty-five, and the whole body of legionary infantry amounted to six thousand one hundred men: their arms were an open helmet with a lofty crest; a breast-plate or coat of mail; greaves on their legs, and an ample buckler on their left arm: the buckler was of an oblong and concave figure, four feet in length and two and an half in breadth, framed of a light wood covered with a bull's hide, and strongly guarded with plates of brass. Besides a light spear, the legionary soldier grasped in his right hand the *pilum*, a ponderous javelin, whose utmost length was about six feet, and which was terminated by a massy triangular point of steel of eighteen inches: this instrument, however, was exhausted by a single discharge, at the distance of only ten or twelve paces. Launched by a firm and skilful hand, no cavalry durst venture within its reach, nor could any shield or corslet sustain the impetuosity of its weight: when the *pilum* was discharged, the Roman soldier drew his sword and closed with his enemy: his sword was a short well-tempered Spanish blade, with a double edge, suited alike to the purpose of striking or of pushing. The legion was usually drawn up eight deep, and the regular distance of three feet was left between the files as well as ranks. The Macedonian phalanx was not a match for the Roman legion. The strength of the phalanx

depended on sixteen ranks of long pikes, wedged together in the closest array; but the compactness of this body yielded to the activity of the legion, to which was added the cavalry, divided into ten troops or squadrons; the first, as the companion of the first cohort, consisted of one hundred and thirty-two men, whilst each of the other nine amounted only to sixty-six. The entire establishment formed a regiment of seven hundred and twenty-six horse, connected with its respective legion, but occasionally separated to act in the line, and to compose a part of the wings of the army. The horses were bred, for the most part, in Spain or Cappadocia, and the arms of the troops consisted in a helmet, an oblong shield, light boots, and a coat of mail: a javelin and a long broad sword were their principal weapons of offence. The legions had, besides, each a portion of auxiliaries, levied in the provinces, who retained their native arms, consisting of missile weapons, and such others as the Barbarians used. With the legion, also, was connected a train of artillery, consisting of ten military engines of the largest, and fifty-five of a smaller, size; but all of which, either in an oblique or horizontal manner, discharged stones and darts with irresistible violence. The form of a Roman camp was that of an exact quadrangle, and a square of about seven hundred yards was sufficient for the encampment of twenty thousand Romans; in the midst of the camp, the prætorium, or general's quarters, rose above the others; the cavalry, the infantry, and the auxiliaries, occupied their respective stations; the streets were broad and perfectly straight, and a vacant space of two hundred feet was left on all sides, between the tents and the ramparts: the rampart itself was usually twelve feet high, armed with a line of strong and intricate pallisades, and defended by a ditch of twelve

feet in depth as well as in breadth. This important labor was performed by the hands of the legionaries themselves, to whom the use of the spade and the pickaxe was no less familiar than that of the sword or pilum. Besides their arms, the legionaries, when marching, were laden with their kitchen furniture, the instruments of fortification, and the provision of many days: under this weight they were trained by a regular step to advance, in about six hours, near twenty miles. On the appearance of an enemy they threw aside their baggage, and by easy and rapid evolutions converted the column of march into an order of battle: the slingers and archers skirmished in the front; the auxiliaries formed the first line, and were seconded or sustained by the strength of the legions; the cavalry covered the flanks, and the military engines were placed in the rear.

In the time of the Antonines, the military peace establishment of the empire consisted of thirty legions, composed of twelve thousand five hundred men each, making a total standing force of three hundred and seventy-five thousand men, to which add the Prætorian bands, computed at twenty thousand, and the marine forces, reckoned at about fifty-five thousand, and we have a total of four hundred and fifty thousand men. The thirty legions were distributed as follows: three in Britain; five upon the Rhine; eleven upon the Danube; eight upon the Euphrates; one in Egypt; one in Africa; and one in Spain. The legions were encamped on the banks of the great rivers, and along the frontiers of the Barbarians. The city cohorts and Prætorian guards watched over the safety of the monarch and the capital. Two permanent fleets were stationed in the most convenient ports of Italy, the one at Ravenna, on the Adriatic, the other at Misenum, in the bay of Naples. —

Besides these two ports, a very considerable force was stationed at Frejus, on the coast of Provence, and the Euxine was guarded by forty ships and three thousand soldiers. To all these add the fleet which preserved the communication between Gaul and Britain, and a great number of vessels constantly maintained on the Rhine and the Danube, to harrass the country or to intercept the passage of the Barbarians. It is estimated that the general annual income of the Roman provinces could seldom amount to less than fifteen or twenty millions sterling, or from sixty to eighty millions of dollars. For the details of these interesting topics, I refer the reader to the very excellent work of Mr. Gibbon. C.

LETTER XIV.

The Romans—Continued.

THE invasion of the Barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire, presents one of the most important points of historical study; at the same time it is the most obscure and the most difficult to be retained in the memory. It is scarcely possible to follow, with precision, by the aid of words alone, this scene of confusion and disorder. I must, nevertheless, attempt to pourtray it; for the various hordes who overran the empire of the Cæsars are the elements of which the nations of modern Europe, of Asia Minor, and part of Africa, are composed.

The *Huns* came from the frontiers of China, and their principal chiefs were the celebrated Attila and

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Bleda. They invaded Illyria, Gaul, and Asia; beat and displaced the Alains, dissipated the monarchy of the Goths, established to the north of the Danube by old Hermanrick, and determined those violent movements of the Barbarians which produced the fall of the empire of the Romans. Under the guidance of Attila, the Huns founded an immense empire from the Danube to the Baltic, and from the borders of the Rhine to the shores of the eastern ocean. This prince, to whom the affrighted world gave the name of *Scourge of God*, invaded Gaul with seven hundred thousand men, and was completely defeated in 451, in the plains of Chalons, or in those of Sologne, near Orleans, by Actius, the Roman general, seconded by the Franks, conducted by Merovius, and by the Visigoths, commanded by Theodoric. It is computed that Attila lost in this battle three hundred thousand men; but this did not prevent him from making, in the following year, a new irruption into Italy, and penetrating as far as Rome, where peace and his retreat were purchased by a large sum of money. Attila returned, laden with booty, to his royal village in Pannonia, where he died, A. D. 453, of an uncommon effusion of blood the first night of his nuptials. His soldiers enclosed his body in a coffin of gold, which they again enclosed in a coffin of silver, which was placed in a coffin of lead, conveyed the whole to a wild and solitary place, caused a grave to be prepared by slaves, and put to death their assistants, in order that the place of sepulture might remain a secret. After the death of Attila his empire was dissolved, and the Huns became mixed and lost among the different hordes which they had subjugated. They made their appearance A. D. 375, and finished their career about 460.

The *Goths*, who invaded Dacia, Illyria, &c. had for their principal leaders Hermanrick and Athanaric. The name of Goths is a common name for many hordes of Barbarians arising from the same stock; such, in particular, were the Visigoths, the Ostrogoths, and Gepides. It is said they were originally from Sweden, where are still to be found the provinces of Gothia and Ostrogothia. So early as the year of our Lord 250, this people were established on the banks of the Neister, and at that time began to direct the most terrible blows at the Roman power. The emperor Decius and his Son perished in battle against them. Hermanrick, the hero of this nation, by a very singular destiny, became a conqueror at eighty years of age. It was at this age, when others think of quitting life, that he commenced the foundation of a monarchy, which he pushed, by his conquests, from the shores of the Danube to those of the frozen ocean. He lived to be one hundred and ten years of age, and perished unexpectedly, with the empire which he had formed, a victim to the sudden irruption and good fortune of the Huns, who, at the first onset, ravished from him his life and overturned his throne.

The *Visigoths*, a branch of the Goths, from the southern parts of Sweden, had for their leaders Fritigern and the celebrated Alaric, and invaded Italy, Gaul, and Spain. Defeated and pursued by the Huns, they obtained permission from the court of Constantinople to pass the Danube and to establish themselves in Thrace. They afterwards turned their arms against those who had granted them this indulgence, and A. D. 378 exterminated the emperor Valens and his army under the walls of Adrianople. The emperor Theodosius the Great subdued and restrained them during his reign, but at his death they revolt-

ed anew, under the conduct of the famous Alaric, desolated all the Illyrian provinces, those of Italy, took and pillaged Rome, passed the Alps, and established themselves in the southern parts of Gaul, forty-three years after their passage of the Danube. Afterwards, crossing the Pyrennees, they fixed the seat of their empire in Spain, upon the ruins, or in the traces, of the Alains, the Suevi, and the Vandals, and they reigned nearly three hundred years, at the end of which they were destroyed in their turn by the Saracens, who came from Africa. Alaric died at Cozenza, in the South of Italy: his army turned the course of a river in order to deposite his corpse, and afterwards restored it to its usual channel. This people attached great importance to the concealment of the remains of their great chiefs from the observation of mankind. The career of the Visigoths commenced A. D. 376 and ended 712.

The *Ostrogoths*, also a branch of the Goths, from the South of Sweden, invaded Illyria and Italy, and had for their principal chief Theodoric. Conquered, in the first instance, by the Huns, the Ostrogoths recovered their independence on the death of Attila, and followed the track of the Visigoths, who had preceded them: they traversed the Danube and established themselves in Moesia. Theodoric the Great, the hero of the nation, raised at first in the character of a hostage at the court of Constantinople, rendered considerable services to the emperor Zeno, who adopted him as his son, granted him the honors of a triumph, and permitted him to proceed into Italy, to oppose Odoacer, king of the Herulians, who came to put an end to the empire of the west. Theodoric, victorious, became the founder of a new monarchy, which was strengthened by his laws and flourished under his careful vigilance. The celebrated Cassiodorus, dis-

tinguished for his knowledge and capacity, was the minister of Theodoric. The Ostrogoths were destroyed, eighty years after the foundation of their empire, by Narses, a general under Justinian, emperor of the East. Jornandes, who lived in the sixth century, and was at first royal secretary, and afterwards bishop of Ravenna, is the historian of the Ostrogoths. They were remarkable on the revolutionary theatre of these tempestuous times, from A. D. 460 to 553.

The *Lombards* originally emigrated from the shores of the Baltic, invaded Illyria and Italy, and had Alboin for their principal chief. In their march towards the south they destroyed the Herulians, and were established in Pannonia by the emperor Justinian, who conceived the project of opposing them to the Gepides. In truth, these two people were not slow in seeking a quarrel, and the Lombards entirely exterminated the Gepides. Invited afterwards by the eunuch Narses, (who had cause to complain of Justinian and the empress Sophia,) they penetrated into Italy under the conduct of their chief Alboin, who was proclaimed king by his soldiers after the capture of Pavia, of Milan, &c. The monarchy of the Lombards, which comprised nearly the whole of the north of Italy, endured for almost two hundred years, and was overturned by Charlemagne, under Didier, their last king. The history of this monarchy furnishes a collection of curious laws and customs, relative to the times in which they prevailed, particularly upon the article of fiefs and feudal customs, whereof many authors allege the Lombards to have been the authors. The commencement and end of the Lombards was from the year of our Lord 568 to 774.

The *Alains* came from the borders of the Caspian sea, and invaded Gaul and Spain. They had for their principal chiefs Respendial and Gonderic. Established beyond the Tanais, and dislodged by the Huns, they at first settled in Pannonia, but soon afterwards united with a numerous horde conducted by Radagaisus. Such as escaped from the defeat which these experienced in Italy, crossed the Rhine and turned towards Gaul, over which they travelled and penetrated beyond the Pyrennees into Spain, in the eastern parts whereof they established themselves. Soon afterwards they experienced a defeat, and their existence and their name disappeared before the Visigoths, their vanquishers, who came from Gaul under the guidance of Wallia, their leader. The Alains were the most cruel and the most sanguinary of all the hordes of that deluge of Barbarians who, about the fifth century, inundated the civilized world.—The period of their career was from the year of our Lord 376 to 417.

The *Burgundians*, the *Suevi*, and the *Vandals*, left their native land, the shores of the Baltic sea, at the commencement of the fifth century, and directing their course towards the south, they recruited in their march the Alains, climbed the Alps and poured down upon Italy, where they divided into two bodies; the one ravaged the banks of the Po, whilst the other, conducted by the famous Radagaisus, who is represented to us as a phenomenon of size and strength, directed itself towards Florence, of which it formed the siege. This unfortunate city was menaced with an approaching fall, when the celebrated Roman general Stilicho came to its relief, which he effected by a prodigious victory in which perished Radagaisus and almost all his numerous followers. The body of Barbarians who remained

behind, then retired into Germany, wandering about at random: some deserters gave them information concerning the Gauls, with whom, until that time, they were unacquainted: they immediately directed themselves towards the Rhine, and marched to pillage these new regions. The Burgundians settled themselves in the eastern part of Gaul, where they founded a kingdom adjacent to that of the Franks, under whom they fell at the end of about a century. Gundicar was the principal chief of the Burgundians.—Comband, or Gondeband, issued a general and celebrated edict, comprising a collection of their laws and customs: it is this precious piece which historians commonly call "*la loi Gombette.*" The Burgundians commenced A. D. 413 and ended in 536. The Vandals traversed Gaul and penetrated into Spain, fixing themselves at first in the southern parts; but soon afterwards, crossing the straits, they arrived in Africa, ravaged the Roman provinces, founded a kingdom upon the ruins of Carthage, embarked for Italy, took Rome by assault, and avenged the Carthaginians at the end of six hundred years. The Vandals, who became proverbial for their rage for devastation, returned to Africa, and continued a monarchy which was destroyed after about one hundred years duration, by the renowned Bellisarius, one of the generals of the emperor Justinian. The Vandals commenced A. D. 409 and ended in 534. Their principal chief was Genseric. The Suevi invaded Spain in concert with the Alains and the Vandals, their roving companions, and establishing themselves in the western parts, founded a monarchy which was overthrown by the Visigoths one hundred and eighty years afterwards. Their principal leader was Hermomrick. Of all the Barbarian people who invaded the Roman empire, the Suevi are, perhaps, a horde

respecting which history is the most silent. They commenced A. D. 409 and finished in 582.

The *Franks* came from the shores of the Rhine and of the Weser, and had for their principal chiefs Pharamond and Clovis. The prevailing opinion concerning this people is, that they were a confederation of many German tribes, situated between the Rhine and the Weser, who united against the Romans for the preservation of their common independence.—After a long time and numerous combats with the Romans, they finally effected a settlement on the left bank of the Rhine, to which they even obtained the consent of the emperors of the west, and by degrees they advanced into Gaul under favor of the troubles which hastened the decline of the empire.—The commencement of their history and the epoch of the foundation of the French monarchy, are, in general, dated in the reign of Pharamond, one of their chiefs, about the year of our Lord 420. Clovis, one of his successors, conquered the greater part of Gaul, was the hero of his race, and ought to be regarded as the true founder of the monarchy. It may not, perhaps, be impertinent to remark, that of all the Barbarians who invaded the Roman empire, the Franks and the Angles are the only people who have survived the revolutions of time, and prolonged to our day their existence and their names.

The *Anglo-Saxons* came originally from the borders of the Elbe, and had for their principal chiefs Hengist and Horsa. Having been called in by the Britons to defend them against the Picts and Scots, they landed in Britain under the conduct of these two brothers, who eventually conquered the country with the aid of numerous other adventurers who speedily followed. After this Saxon conquest the country was divided into seven different kingdoms, which

was called the *Heptarchy*. In the course of time these seven kingdoms were united, by inheritance or by subjugation, in the person of Egbert, who commenced the English monarchy, which has continued to our days. George the Third, now on the throne, is the descendant and lineal successor of this Egbert, from whom he is separated by fifty sovereigns and thirty generations. The Anglo-Saxon career began A. D. 450.

The *Saracens* came from Arabia, and their principal chief was Abderaman. They were the tribes united by Mahomet, and effected, almost in an instant, under the conduct of the caliphs and their successors, the conquest of an immense country. They subdued, on the one hand, Persia, Syria, and penetrated as far as the gates of Constantinople; whilst, on the other, they traversed Egypt, inundated Africa, the islands of the Mediterranean, and Spain—they also broke into France, where nothing could arrest their progress till they were opposed by Charles Martel, whose valor and abilities completely defeated them in the vicinity of Poitiers, forcing them to retire into Spain, where they founded, upon the ruins of the Visigoths, a dominion which continued for seven hundred and eighty years, with more or less lustre, until they were totally subjugated and expelled by Ferdinand and Isabella, who got possession of Grenada, their last asylum, A. D. 1492. The Saracens of Asia were destroyed by the Tartars A. D. 1248.—The name only is all that remains to us at this day of this celebrated people, who, at one time, gave laws to a great portion of the earth. Nevertheless, the Saracens of Bagdad merit a generous recollection for the lustre which, in the time of their caliph Haroun Al-Raschid, they shed upon science and letters.—

The Saracens commenced A. D. 632 and ended their career in 1492.

The *Allemanni* had for their principal chief Chonodomar. They were a confederacy of a great number of different tribes, which circumstance is supposed to have given rise to their name, which implies a collection of *all men*, or of *all sorts of men*. The confederation took place about the year 215 after Jesus Christ, between the Leck and the upper Rhine. Others will have it that their name was derived from the little river Altmuhl, in Franconia, otherwise called *Allemanus*—but according to Pfeffel (in his abridgment of the history and public law of Germany) it remains to be ascertained whether it was the river that gave its name to the people in its vicinity, or the people who gave their name to the river. The *Allemanni* undertook many unfortunate expeditions against Italy and Gaul, in which they were constantly repulsed, particularly by the emperor Julian, near Strasburg, A. D. 375; and by king Clovis, at the celebrated battle of Tolbiac, near Juliers, A. D. 496. After these misfortunes the *Allemanni* remained on their native soil, where, in the course of time, their name has become a general denomination for all the people beyond the Rhine; whilst that of Suabia served them for a long time as a particular denomination.

Besides the nations I have mentioned, there were other hordes of Barbarians instrumental in the destruction of the Roman empire. The *Gepides* had a common origin with the Ostrogoths and the Visigoths, from whom they separated on their arrival, from Sweden, in Germany. To the north of the Danube they founded a kingdom, which was destroyed by the Lombards. The *Heruli* were one of those numerous colonies with which Germany was covered: it is

said they were destroyed by the Lombards. In truth, it is the custom to call Odoacer, who overturned the empire of the west, king of the Herulians ; but it is because he was of the Herulian nation, and not because he invaded Italy at the head of the Herulians. This prince was in the pay of the emperors, as were a number of Barbarian auxiliaries. He revolted, put himself at their head, dethroned Augustulus, and took the title of the king of Heruli. The *Avars* were chased from Asia by the Turks, and arrived at the mouth of the Danube about the middle of the sixth century. They founded an empire, which, for a long time, proved an inconvenient neighborhood to the eastern empire of the Romans. The *Bulgarians* emigrated from Scythia, succeeded to the Avars on the shores of the Danube, about the end of the seventh century, and subdivided themselves, in the course of time, into Sclavonians, Croatians, Moravians, Wallachians, Bosnians, &c. The *Venedi* and the *Slavi* were colonies that were settled on the borders of the Baltic, and, in a lapse of years, were subjugated and incorporated with the Germanic empire. The *Danes* and the *Normans* were maritime people of the coasts of Jutland and Norway. They laid Europe waste about the ninth and tenth centuries ; landed on the sea coasts, sailed up the rivers, pillaging, burning, and sacking, every thing in their course. In this manner they visited Germany and France, and invaded England and Ireland. The *Hungarians* arrived from the east of the Volga towards the end of the ninth century, and for a long time were a plague to the Greeks and the Franco-Germans. The *Turks* commonly dwelt at the foot of Mount Imaus, in the centre of Asia : At first they were the slaves of a Scythian horde from which they revolted ; and, becoming masters in their turn, the

subjugated all the people that surrounded them.— Their princes, under the title of Sultans, made themselves by force the lieutenants of the Saracen Caliphs of Bagdad, penetrated into Syria, into Asia Minor, and even took possession of Constantinople, which they now govern.

The Barbarians who effected the destruction of the Roman empire, may be divided into three classes ; 1. Those of Europe. 2. Those of Asia. And, 3. Those of an intermedial origin. If, from the peninsula of the Crimea to the mouths of the Dwina, we imagine an irregular line in that direction, we shall have to its left the Barbarians of Europe : if, again, we imagine another line from the mouths of the Don or Tanais, to those of the Oby, we shall have to its right the Barbarians of Asia : and as to the intermedial hordes, they occupy the space between these two lines.

The *Barbarians of Europe*, or Germans, were remarkable for the beauty of their persons, the fairness of their complexions, and the length of their hair.— The Teutonic was the language common to them all, under various dialects. They gained their subsistence by hunting, lived in huts, and seldom changed their residence unless compelled by circumstances. They wore their vestments close to their body, had but one wife each, and their principal military force consisted in infantry. Under the general denomination of Barbarians of Europe may be comprised the Franks, the Allemanni, the Goths, subdivided into Visigoths, Ostrogoths, and Gepides ; the Lombards, the Burgundians, the Vandals, the Suevi, the Heruli, the Quadi, the Marcomanni, the Angles, the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans.

The *Intermedial Barbarians*, or the Scythians and Carmatians, united the complexion and form of the

Barbarians of Europe to the customs and language of those of Asia, and thus served at once as a barrier and a link between these two different species. These nations, continually pressing to the south, recruited, without intermission, the mass of people which they found to the right and to the left, and who occupied the void space which their excursions occasioned. Under the general denomination of intermedial Barbarians, ought to be comprised the Sclavi, the Venedi, the Bulgarians, the Bosnians, the Servians, the Croatians, the Polanders, and the Russians.

The *Barbarians of Asia*, or the Tartars, were characterised by the deformity of their persons and the brown complexion or sun-burnt color of their skins. The Slavonian was the language common to them all, under different dialects. They were shepherds, constantly residing in the midst of their numerous herds of cattle, and always seeking for new pasturage. They encamped under moveable tents, wore loose, floating garments, had many wives, and their principal military force consisted of cavalry. In a word, they presented a perfect contrast with those of Europe. Under the general denomination of Barbarians of Asia, we may comprehend the Huns, the Alains, the Avars, the Hungarians, and the Turks. The Arabs, or Saracens, are excluded from this enumeration, inasmuch as they belong to the south of Asia. C.

LETTER XV.

The Romans—Concluded.

SALLUST, a Roman of senatorial dignity, and at once a libertine and an elegant writer, in speaking of the causes of the prosperity and misfortunes of Rome, fixes our attention by some very acute observations. "Upon reading many, and hearing of many glorious achievements (says he) which the Roman people did, at home and in war, by sea and land, I was accidentally inclined to consider narrowly what things had chiefly supported such great performances. I was sensible that often with a small handful they had engaged with mighty armies of their enemies: I had found, that wars had been carried on by small forces with potent kings: and further, that they had often borne the shocks of fortune: that the Greeks for eloquence, the Gauls for reputation in war, were before the Romans. And to me, upon revolving many things, it appeared certain, that the extraordinary conduct of a few citizens had effected all; and hence it came to pass, that poverty vanquished riches and a handful multitudes. But after the city was debauched with luxury and idleness, the commonwealth, in its turn, by its own grandeur, supported the vices of its generals and magistrates; and, as happens to a mother past bearing, there has been, indeed, for many years, not any one eminent for a great character at Rome. But in my own time there have been two men, Cato and Cæsar, of extraordinary abilities, yet different in their way." And in the portraits which Sallust draws of these two distinguished persons, may be recognised a specimen of the republican virtues and manners, and an

example of the spirit and conduct that were best calculated to attract attention and fix admiration after corruption had crept into the commonwealth.—“The extraction of Cato and Cæsar, (according to Sallust,) their age, their eloquence, were almost equal; their greatness of soul was the same, as also their glory; but in each of a different kind. Cæsar was esteemed great for his kind offices and generosity; Cato for the integrity of his life. The former became famous by clemency and compassion: rigid strictness gave a mighty reputation to the latter. Cæsar acquired glory by giving, by relieving, by forgiving;—Cato by offering no presents to bribe the people. In the one there was a refuge for the miserable; in the other certain destruction for the wicked. The frankness of the former was celebrated; the steadiness of the latter. Finally, Cæsar had put on a resolution to labor and to watch; quite taken up with the affairs of his friends he neglected his own; and refused nothing that was worth the giving: he wished for great command to himself, for an army, for an uncommon war, where his vast abilities might be displayed,—But for Cato was the study of sobriety, of decency, but especially of strict discipline. He did not vie with the rich in riches, nor in faction with the party-man; but in bravery with the brave, in modesty with the modest, in innocence with the guiltless. He chose rather to be good than appear so; and the less he courted fame the more it followed him.” In brief, we may conclude, from what Sallust says, and from the information which we derive from other sources, that had Cæsar lived in the early days of the republic, he would have been as rigidly virtuous as Cato; but perceiving that the Roman people were corrupted, he accommodated himself to the spirit of the times, and won the affections of the multitude by

those artifices which are the most likely to prevail in a luxurious age. Cato, with his thorny virtues, was so indiscreet as to attempt to revive, in a voluptuous generation, the sturdy principles of the first of the Romans; and thereby made proselytes for Cæsar more expeditiously than Cæsar could have made them for himself. In this effort he experienced the fate of those emperors, who, in succeeding times, attempted to restore the relaxed discipline of the legions. Cato eventually perished by his own hand, despairing of the commonwealth. It is thought by many, that had he been somewhat more flexible of temper, had he concerted his plans of reformation more upon the actual circumstances of his country, and less upon a severe abstract idea of republican probity, he might have prolonged the duration of the free institutions of Rome. Cæsar, however, prevailed. He was one of the most subtle, enterprising, and magnanimous men of his day. At once valiant, learned, eloquent, and witty, he gave brilliancy to all these qualities by temperance and activity. I speak of Cæsar as a man, and not as the subduer of his country's liberties. But, in truth, it was not so much Cæsar, as it was the Roman people themselves, who enslaved the republic. Their vices, their passions, their factions, overthrew the fair fabric of freedom, which had been reared by the courage and frugality of their ancestors: and it may be safely laid down as a maxim, that no people can be enslaved by their own great men, if they are true to themselves.

Upon the death of Julius Cæsar, after the punishment of his assassins, Augustus having overthrown all his rivals, became emperor, and under republican forms of government was the absolute master of the Roman world. Confiding wholly neither in the people nor in the soldiery, he interposed the majesty of

the senate between himself and the latter, and claimed their obedience as the first magistrate of the republic ; whilst, to crush the first movements of rebellion in the empire, and to awe the populace of the city, he instituted the Prætorian Guards, which originally consisted of nine or ten thousand men, divided into as many cohorts. Vitellius increased them to sixteen thousand, and they never afterwards sunk much below that number. These favored troops were distinguished by double pay and superior privileges. Fearful of alarming and irritating the people, Augustus only stationed three cohorts in the city, the remainder being quartered in the adjacent towns of Italy ; but fifty years afterwards, when peace and servitude had enervated the minds of the Romans, Tiberius collected the whole body at Rome, in a permanent camp, fortified with skill and care, and placed in a commanding situation. It was thus that a military force was substituted for the will of the citizens ; and the moment the people lost their liberty, they lost their influence in the government. It became, in the end, a maxim with the emperors, that the fidelity of the army was all that was necessary to the stability of the throne.

The courage and patriotism of the Romans under the republic, achieved and sustained its conquests. But the destruction of Carthage and the plunder of the east filled the city with riches ; these, in time, occasioned vast inequality of property, which, on the one hand produced indolence, pride, and personal ambition ; whilst, on the other, it infused into the lower classes a spirit of servility and indifference for national prosperity. Virtue, the great prop of nations, being dissipated by such causes, the emperors had to seek the means of defending their provinces and sustaining their grandeur in discipline, which,

so long as it lasted, (connected with the ancient renown of the legions,) successfully guarded the Roman world from the incursions of the Barbarians.— But what had happened among the people during the republic in the election of their consuls, in time occurred among the soldiery in the election of the emperors: donations and largesses corrupted the one as they had corrupted the other: and as the corruption of the people had occasioned the destruction of the republic, so did the corruption of the soldiery bring on the ruin of the empire. Relaxed in their discipline, and feeling their own power, the legions made a traffic of the imperial throne, and on one occasion actually set it up at public sale, when it was purchased by a rich senator of the name of Didius Julianus, a silly old man, who was beheaded as a common criminal after a reign of sixty-six days. The legions of the provinces held out the longest against corruption; but the circumstance that chiefly upheld their military reputation proved pernicious to the state.— Their ranks were occasionally recruited from among the Barbarians, who, acquiring the art of war, in the sequel turned their arms against the empire, invited hordes of invaders from the most remote situations, and finally annihilated the dominion of the masters of the world.

But that which more than any thing else precipitated the downfall of the Roman power, was the transfer of the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, by Constantine, from whom it has since borne the name of Constantinople. This event occurred A. D. 324, when Constantine adopted the Christian religion, and fought under the auspices of the Holy Cross. At length, A. D. 364, a solemn partition of the empire took place, Valentinian presiding over the empire of the west, and Valens presiding over that

of the east. This was a death-blow to the western empire, which included the city of Rome, for it did not survive this division much longer than one century. The eastern empire can, in reality, be considered as very little more than a fragment of the old Roman empire; the provinces appertaining to it were situated chiefly in Asia; and after having been gradually diminished by the different attacks of the Barbarians of that quarter of the world, it entirely disappeared under the Turks, who took Constantinople by assault, and put an end to a dominion which had subsisted, from the time of Valens to that of Constantine Paleogolus, for nearly eleven hundred years, during which it successively bore the names of the empire of the east, the Greek empire, the empire of Constantinople, and the lower empire. It fell by the vices of the government and of the people. In the twelfth century it did not extend much further than the walls of the capital. In the thirteenth century Constantinople was captured by the Crusaders, of whom the greater part were French. They kept possession of it more than sixty years, under the denomination of empire of the French or Latins. The principal houses (or royal families) seated upon the throne of Constantinople, during the eleven centuries that the empire of the east had subsisted, were the Theodosian, the Justinian, the Heraclian, the Isaurian, the Phrygian, the Macedonian; those of Ducas, of Comnena, of Angelo, of Flanders, of Courtenay, of Brienne, of Cantacuzene, and of Paleogolus. It was A. D. 1453 that Mahomet the second got possession of Constantinople, and commenced the Turkish empire in Europe, which has continued down to our times under twenty-two emperors of the same family.

The Romans originally borrowed their laws from the Greeks. Three hundred years after the foundation of the city the people were still governed by the arbitrary and uncertain decrees of their judges. On the complaints of the citizens ambassadors were sent to Athens to study the Grecian laws, a code of which they brought back with them, and ten men were chosen, under the title of Decemviri, to superintend their institution. These caused the laws to be inscribed on ten tables, which thereafter occasioned them to be called the laws of the ten tables : two tables having been subsequently added to the ten, they have, from that circumstance, since taken the name of the laws of the twelve tables. These Decemviri were made absolute for a year, during which all other magistrates were suspended. At the end of the year they refused to lay down their power, but became the tyrants of the republic, maintaining their usurped authority by force : but the people finally expelled them, and for that time preserved their freedom. These laws, the basis of the Roman jurisprudence, grew and improved with the increase and prosperity of the republic and the empire. Universal toleration in religion prevailed ; philosophy and philosophers were generally patronised ; the magistrates were enlightened and respected ; the freedom of the city was liberally extended to the vanquished ; colonies and municipal towns were established and generally fostered ; the Greek and Latin languages were cherished in those parts of the empire where they respectively predominated or were interwoven with the prejudices of the people, whilst among the polished classes of society both languages were cultivated with success ; with this difference, however, that the Latin was the language of the law, and the Greek most commonly that of science and literature.

The Romans, like the Greeks, had their slaves, the treatment of whom varied according to the variation of manners. Italy and the provinces were covered with monuments, many of which were erected at private expense, and the most of them were for public use, consisting of temples, theatres, aqueducts, &c. The ruins of these attest in our times their former magnificence. The roads were extensive and excellent; navigation was encouraged, agriculture and the arts of luxury found a protecting hand; foreign trade was patronised; and, in fine, every thing was attended to that could promote the wealth and happiness of the inhabitants of so extensive an empire.— Intervals of peace and universal felicity brought on imperceptibly the decline of courage and of genius, and eventually produced that degeneracy which yielded to the vigor of the Barbarians. The old Roman empire ended A. D. 800, when Charlemagne was crowned emperor.

C.

LETTER XVI.

Sacred History.

THE influence which the introduction of Christianity has had upon human affairs, and, particularly, its instrumentality in rescuing mankind from the ignorance and tyranny of those governments which were established upon the ruins of the Roman power, render it necessary to enter briefly into an analysis of Sacred History. In the year 4004 before Jesus Christ we date the creation, or birth of Adam. The

description of this period acquaints us with the circumstances of the formation of the world, and demonstrates to men their immediate connexion with their Creator. The facts related rest upon the authority of the Bible, which is composed of two parts, the *Old* and the *New Testaments*. The Old Testament contains Genesis, which describes the creation, and embraces a period of two thousand years: Exodus, which gives us the departure of the Israelites from Egypt: Leviticus, containing the law of the priesthood: Numbers, or recapitulation of the people: and Deuteronomy, or recitation of the law. These five books were written by Moses, and are called the Pentateuch. They form the most antique monument with which we are acquainted, and comprise a body of laws which, by a very singular duration, are observed by a people still existing. The book of Joshua, is the history of his own times. The book of Judges gives the names and the history of the Judges: The book of Ruth, ascribed to Samuel, is a private history. The four books of Kings give the history of Israel for six hundred years. Paralipomena, or things forgotten, is commonly called the two books of Chronicles. The two books of Esdras give us the history of, and after, the captivity of the Jews. The four books of Tobit,* Judith,* Esther, and Job, are private histories. The one hundred and fifty Psalms, were written principally by David. The Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and the Song of Songs, by Solomon.—The book of Wisdom, Ecclesiasticus, and the books of the Prophets. There are sixteen Prophets, of whom four are called the Great Prophets, from the importance of their writings; namely, Isaiah, Jeremiah, with his secretary Baruch; Ezekiel, and Daniel. The twelve others are the lesser Prophets; that is to say, Hosea, Joel, Amos, Abdias, Jonah,

Micah, Nahum, Habakkuk, Zephaniah, Haggai, Zachariah, and Malachi. The two books of Maccabees* conclude the Sacred History of the Old Testament, 130 years before Jesus Christ. In all forty-five books, according to the decision of the council of Trent. All the books marked thus (*) are admitted as canonical by the Roman, but not by the Protestant, Church. The books of the New Testament are, the four Evangelists, that is to say, St. Matthew, St. Mark, St. Luke, and St. John. The Acts of the Apostles. Fourteen epistles of St. Paul. One epistle of St. James. Two epistles of St. Peter. Three epistles of St. John. One epistle of St. Jude. The Apocalypse, or Revelations of St. John. In all twenty-seven books, agreeably to the decision of the council of Trent. The most ancient version of the Holy Scriptures, and that which is most esteemed, is the famous Septuagint, or version of the Seventy, translated into Greek by order of Ptolemy. The Latin Bible, which is used in the Roman Church, called the Vulgate, is a translation by St. Jerome. There are four celebrated Polyglots; or Bibles in many languages: the first was by the Cardinal Ximenes, in the year of our Lord 1515: the second, by Plantin, at Anvers, in 1572: the third, by Le Jay, at Paris, in 1645: and the fourth, by Walton, at London, in 1657.

In the year 2348 before Jesus Christ, existed Noah, in whose time the deluge took place. The three sons of Noah, (from whom proceeded all nations,) were Shem, Ham, and Japhet. The people of Asia sprung from Shem, those of Africa from Ham, and the people of Europe from Japhet.

Time of the Patriarchs.

In the year 1996 B. C. lived Abraham, who had for his wife Sarah. In 1896, Isaac, whose wife was Rebecca. In 1836, Jacob, who had for wives Rachel and Leah. In 1706, B. C. Jacob and his twelve sons, fathers of the twelve tribes of Israel, who established themselves in Egypt. In 1573, the Israelites were persecuted in Egypt.

Time of the Judges.

In the year 1504 B. C. Moses effected his departure from Egypt. In 1490, Aaron, the brother of Moses, became high priest. In 1451, Joshua entered the land of promise. In 1245, Gideon achieved a victory without fighting. In 1136, lived Sampson; and Samuel, who was the last of the Judges.

Time of the Kings.

In the year 1095 B. C. Saul was anointed and crowned king by the order of God. In 1055, lived David, who was at once a king, a poet, and a prophet. And in 1015, Solomon flourished, renowned throughout the world for his wisdom.

SCHISM OF THE TWELVE TRIBES OF ISRAEL.

Kings of Judah.

Judah, under the separation, embraced two tribes; and in the year 975 B. C. had for king Rehoboam; and in 884, Athaliah. There flourished among these two tribes the prophets Elias, Elisha, Jonah, Hosea, Micah, and Isaiah; in these times also lived Holofernes and

Judith. In 606 commenced the captivity of Judah. Nebuchadnezzar took Jerusalem, and led away captive the king.

Kings of Israel.

In the schism, Israel comprehended ten tribes. In the year 975 B. C. Jeroboam was their king. Amri built Samaria. Hosea was the last king of Israel. In 721 Salmanazar destroyed this kingdom, which had endured for two hundred and fifty years. He led the ten tribes away captive and dispersed them. Of these tribes the prophets were Tobit, Jeremiah, Baruch, Ezekiel, Daniel: Susanna and Esther were also of the tribes of Israel.

In the year B. C. 536, the captivity of the Jews ended. They were permitted to return to their country by Cyrus; and they departed, to the number of forty thousand, under the conduct of Zorobabel, of the blood-royal of Judah; of Jesus, the son of the high priest; of Esdras, a doctor of laws; and of Nehemias, the governor of the people. In 504 the temple was rebuilt, after fifteen years of labor. Then occurred the seventy weeks of Daniel. In 458 flourished Esdras; and in 445 Nehemiah; and also Malachi, who was the last prophet.

Nehemiah, by the favor of Artaxerxes Longimanus, rebuilt Jerusalem. The government of the Jews, from this period to that of the Maccabees, was a kind of aristocracy, under the protection of the Persians and the Greeks. The high priests joined to the sacerdotal functions the civil administration, but with the concurrence and aid of the principal persons of the nation. In 332 Alexander the Great entered Jerusalem, Jaddus being then high priest. In 270 the Septuagint was made. This translation of the Holy

Scriptures was the work of seventy old men, whom the priest Eleazar sent to Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, who had demanded them of him.

Two hundred years before Jesus Christ the persecution of the Jews by Antiochus, king of Syria, commenced. He entered Jerusalem and profaned the temple. It was in these times that the Maccabees exhibited prodigies of valor, and eventually liberated their country. In 130 the Sacred History concludes with the two books of the Maccabees.

The Talmud is the most complete body of the Jewish doctrines; and it is composed of two parts: the Misna, which is the text; and the Gemar, which is the commentary. The Jews acknowledge two Talmuds; that of Jerusalem, written one hundred and fifty years after Jesus Christ; and that of Babylon, the production, it is believed, of the sixth century. This last is generally followed, the extreme obscurity of the former having caused them to neglect it.

Thirty-seven years before Jesus Christ the usurpation and reign of Herod took place. This brings us down to the birth of our Savior.

Jesus Christ, our Lord and Savior, was born towards the latter end of the reign of Augustus Cæsar. He lived with his mortal parents till he was thirty years of age, when he was baptized by John in the river Jordan. For three years afterwards he went about the country doing good and inculcating the everlasting maxims of the Gospel. The Jews had all along expected, and even still expect, a Messiah; but they expected him in the style of an emperor or king, and refused to acknowledge a Savior who appeared before them in the holy humility of Christ. At last they brought a false accusation against him, and caused him to be put to death by the Roman power. He was crucified in the thirty-third year of his age; a kind

of death only inflicted on slaves. His body having been buried, it experienced a resurrection on the third day: he returned to heaven, whence his divine Spirit emanated, and, seated on the right hand of God, will remain there till the final dissolution of all things, when he will come to judge of the quick and the dead. For some time after our Savior's resurrection, the apostles preached to none except to those of the circumcision, whether Jews or Proselytes; but afterwards they extended their labors all over the world: their first converts were appointed elders in the churches, whose business it was to instruct the new converts and to prevent them from relapsing into idolatry. The business of these elders or bishops was to preach to the people, to pray with them, and administer the Sacraments. The second order in the churches was that of deacons, and from among them the bishops were generally elected: their office was to visit the sick, to pray with them, and in times of persecution to assist the bishop in visiting the people from house to house. During their leisure hours they followed secular employments, and their people were not burthened to support them; but whenever a support was wanting it was cheerfully granted.— They were plain in their dress. Such as were Jews, and embraced the Christian religion, were at liberty to practise their own rites and ceremonies, yet they were not to impose them on others; but this fell into disrespect, and Jewish ceremonies were seldom used after the destruction of Jerusalem. This was the state of the church during the age of the apostles; and few ceremonies were used till Constantine the Great embraced the faith. The Christian form of worship, before Constantine gave it a civil establishment, was as follows: when the congregation was assembled, a portion of the Sacred Scriptures was read, and often

epistles from neighboring churches, by a person who was a candidate for Holy Orders, who was called the clerk, or more frequently the reader. The place from whence he read was an eminence in the Church, where he could be seen and heard by all the people : this eminence was called the *pulpitum*, from whence our word pulpit is derived. No person was permitted to speak while he read, for during the three first centuries of Christianity responses were not used in the churches. After the reading the Scriptures followed the singing of psalms, or divine songs of their own private composing. The mode of singing was optional, and different in different churches. After the singing was ended the bishop stood up and delivered a sermon, which was commonly an explication of what had been read in the lessons, and concluded with some practical inferences. On the conclusion of the sermon the whole congregation stood up to present their prayers to Almighty God, with their faces turned to the east. The ministers wore a *palium*, or cloak, in preference to the Roman *toga*, or gown, which was more gay and splendid. When the prayer was concluded, the people said *Amen*, or *So be it*. Baptism was an early ceremony among the Christians : the bishop or president usually baptized ; but when the members of the church were increased, assistants were chosen, called presbyters : these were selected from among the people and ordained in the same manner as the bishops. Infants, of Christian parentage, and adult converts, were those who received the benefits of baptism. The celebration of the Eucharist, or Lord's Supper, was also an early and very solemn exercise of the church. The meetings of the primitive believers were usually in houses, which they denominated churches ; but in times of persecution they used to meet in fields, in deserts,

and sometimes in ships that laid near the sea-coast. In describing the form of their churches, Tertullian says, "The house of our dove-like religion is simple, built on high, and in open view, respecting the light as the figure of the Holy Ghost, and the east as the representation of Christ." The Lord's day, or Sunday, was the chief time of religious worship; and in some parts of Asia, where there were many Jews, the Christians performed divine service both on Saturdays and Sundays, that they might convince those infatuated people, that although they worshipped Christ as their God, yet they honored Moses who was a divine law-giver. There were also other times appropriated for holy fasts and feasts.

The Christians buried their dead apart from the Heathens. When the bishop died the whole congregation met together to choose another in his room, and being elected by a majority of voices, the minority acquiesced, and the bishop elected was presented for confirmation to the neighboring bishops, after which he was ordained in his own church. The censures of the early Christian societies were directed against heresy, schism, covetousness, gluttony, fornication, adultery, and other sins of a scandalous nature. The whole church, clergy and laity, constituted the judges of the offenders, and the sentence of excommunication was pronounced against convicted delinquents. Every person thus excommunicated, or cast out, was looked upon as accursed of God, and consigned over to eternal perdition. But by fasting, prayer, watching, mourning, and a train of severe mortifications, the sinner might be absolved from his guilt and restored to the bosom of the church. During the first three centuries of the Christian era Synods, or meetings of members of different churches, were not universal but provincial, called according

to circumstances. They were composed of the bishops, some of the presbytery, and deacons, and a deputation of the laity from each church. The primitive Christians were, in general, innocent in their lives; they loved, cherished, and adhered to one another in prosperity, in adversity, and in death. Branded with odious names, scandalized by the vilest calumnies, and persecuted by Jews and Pagans; by union, probity, and fortitude, they eventually triumphed over every obstacle, and established their religion upon an imperishable basis.

Before the reign of Constantine the Great many heresies arose in the Christian church. Simon Magus was the first that broached heresy; having professed to be a convert to the apostle Peter, and been baptized, he went about teaching all kind of profane notions. The Abelianians, or Abelonians, were a remarkable sect of heretics, who permitted marriage only on the terms of association supposed to have existed in Paradise before the fall of Adam. They did not endure for a long time. Adamites were another sect who sprung up about the middle of the second century. Their founder was one Prodicus, and they met together in all their public assemblies naked.— They were a beastly society, and from their abominations soon relapsed into Paganism. The same heresy was revived in the fifteenth century by one Picard, a native of Flanders, a mad-brained enthusiast, who retired with his followers to the mountains of Bohemia, and was finally seized at Amsterdam. There was a sect called Ærians, who held that no clergyman was superior to another, and that it was unlawful for the clergy to marry; and these were called heretics: they existed about the latter end of the reign of Constantine. Arianism, (from Arius, a presbyter of the church of Alexandria, in Egypt,) was

another heresy. The founder of this sect taught his disciples that there was a time when the son was not created ; that he was like the angels, liable to commit sin ; that being united to human flesh he supplied the place of a human soul, and consequently was subject to pains and all sorts of sufferings in the same manner as men. At a council, or synod, of one hundred bishops of Egypt and Lybia, Arius and his followers were degraded from their orders and excommunicated out of the church. To remedy the disorder which this heresy occasioned, Constantine the Great called the first General Council of Nice in Bythinia, at which were present three hundred and eighteen bishops, from all parts of the empire, besides a vast number of other church officers, and amongst these were several from Britain. Arius was summoned before the council, where he boldly appeared ; but the sentence of excommunication was confirmed ; and the emperor added a decree, excluding him and all his followers from places, either ecclesiastical or civil ; condemning them also to perpetual banishment. About three years afterwards all the Arian bishops were restored to their sees, and Arius himself was recalled. Arius obtained an audience of the emperor, presented him with a confession of his faith, artfully drawn up, and this satisfied Constantine.—Athanasius, then enjoying the bishopric of Alexandria, (exclusion from which is supposed to have been the chief cause of the heresy of Arius, who had been a candidate for it) was so enraged that he refused to admit the Arians. These latter, equally enraged, made interest at court, and effected the banishment of Athanasius : the church of Alexandria, nevertheless, refused to admit Arius : whereupon he drew up a second and more modest confession of his faith, which so pleased Constantine, that he ordered Alex-

ander, bishop of Constantinople, to admit him into his church the next day; but, the night before this was to take place, Arius died. The heresy did not die with him. Athanasius was recalled; but they still continued to anathematize and excommunicate each other. Michael Servetus, a Spanish physician, revived this heresy about the time of the reformation, for which he was burnt alive at Geneva; but his followers were few in number. In the primitive ages the Arians divided themselves into many branches; there were the Semi-Arians; the Anomoeans, or Pure Arians; the Eudoxians, from Eudoxus, who undertook the defence of Arius, and was elected bishop of Germanicia, in Syria, by the Arian party. He opposed the doctrine of the Trinity in the Grand Council of Antioch, A. D. 341: and afterwards in the Councils of Sardica, Sirmium, and Selucia. Constantine the Great appointed him archbishop of Constantinople. Another branch of the Arians, was the Eunomeans, founded by Eunomius, bishop of Syzicus, who had formerly been a soldier, but afterwards studied divinity. He was first banished by the emperor, then recalled, and treated with the highest honors. The Eusebians (from Eusebius) were another sect. Eusebius was a man of learning, was at first favored by Constantine the Great, afterwards banished, then recalled, and after the death of Constantine, he prevailed with his son Constantinus to patronize the Arians, and A. D. 341, a council, by the emperor's orders, was assembled at Antioch, and declared the Arian heresy to be the established religion of the empire. Macedonius was the founder of another Arian sect; he carried the doctrines of the heresy very far, and had for some time great respect in the Christian world. The Pholinians, (from Pholinus, bishop of Sirmich, in Pannonia,) were another

branch of Arians. He went so far as to declare that God was not immense, for which he was discarded by the Arians, and excommunicated in the council held at Milan, A. D. 346. The Gnostics were a sect of heretics, of which Simon Magus was said to have been the founder; they affected superior piety and heavenly inspiration; but were guilty of many blasphemies and gross immoralities. The Valentinians (from Valentinus) were an heretical sect that sprung up about the middle of the second century. This sect was one of the most famous and most numerous in the early ages of Christianity; the founder was originally a Gnostic, but having refined upon the notions of that sect, he went to Rome, where he preached upwards of twenty years. He was a man of learning and drew his notions from the principles of the Platonists, making every idea that could be formed stand in the room of a god. The Marcionites were a branch of this Valentinian heresy, growing up from one Marcion, who, in his younger years, had lived as a monk in the wilderness. The Ætians (from Ætius, a Syrian,) were a sect of heretics who flourished in Egypt in the beginning of the fourth century: the founder taught that God revealed to him what he had kept hid from the Apostles; that good works were not necessary to salvation; and that no sin whatever would exclude those who believed in his opinions from the divine favor. About the latter end of the second century the church was infested with the sect of Basilidians, from Basilides: he taught that God created three hundred and seventy-five heavens between this world and his seat of glory: that each of these heavens had an angel to govern it; that the first angel created the angel who governed the heaven below him, and so on in progression to the last: he also taught the salvation of the soul without

the resurrection of the body, and other extravagancies. Manes instituted the heretical sect of Manichees, or Manicheans: he lived under the emperor Probus, towards the latter end of the third century, and inculcated the doctrine of two universal principles, the one the author of all good, the other the author of all evil; his notions were as fantastical and numerous as they were obnoxious to true religion: Leo, bishop of Rome, used to say, that the devil, who reigned in all heresies, had built a fortress, and raised a throne in that of the Manichees, who embraced all the errors and impieties that the heart of man is capable of. This wicked individual was fled alive and his carcase given to the wild beasts, for having failed in the cure of a son of the king of Persia, which he had undertaken. Another sect of heretics were called Originists, from the famous, great, and learned Origin, who was for many years a Presbyter of the church of Alexandria: his doctrine chiefly consisted in the interweaving the Platonic philosophy with the Christian theology. Donatus, a Numidian bishop, established the sect of Donatists, which flourished for some time in Africa: his heresy was an artful misrepresentation of several of the tenets of the regular church; and weak, unsettled minds, being unable to discern the true distinctions, were easily led into error. The Agnoites (first established by one Theopronius) were an heretical sect, who denied the omniscience of God, and the intelligence of Christ. On the death of John the Evangelist a sect of heretics sprung up called Alogians, because they denied the Divine Logos, the word, or son, of God: they rejected the gospel of St. John; and their founder was one Theodore, a currier of Byzantium. Severus was the founder of the Angelites, who took their rise towards the latter end of the fourth century: they believed

that the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, were the same; that these were all God in common, but neither of them God separately. The Appelleans were reared by Appelles, a disciple of Marcion: they rejected all the prophetical writings, and denied the resurrection of the body. The Apollinarians took their rise from Apollinarius, bishop of Laodicea: they maintained that there was not an intelligent soul in Jesus Christ, but that the Divinity, joined to humanity, supplied the place of a soul. The Aquarians only differed from the Orthodox in mingling water with the wine in the Eucharist, and can hardly be called heretics: this sect existed in Africa. The Archonites sprang up about the latter end of the second century, and taught that the world was created by arch-angels, denied the resurrection of the body, and placed perfect redemption in certain chimerical knowledge; among other notions they attributed great power to the devil. The Artotyrites were a sect of heretics who existed in the early ages of the church, and celebrated the Eucharist with bread and cheese, saying that the first oblations made by men were the fruits of the earth and of sheep. The Audeans arose from one Audean, a Syrian, about the beginning of the fourth century: he asserted that the resemblance between God and man consisted in the body of man. The Carpocratians were a sect founded by Carpocrates, of Alexandria, who taught that a community of wives was not only lawful, but meritorious; that no man could be happy till he had passed through all sorts of debauchery, and that nothing was evil in its own nature, but was only so in the opinion of men: proselytes in this sect were marked under the right ear with a hot iron.—Another heretical sect was called Cerdonians, from Cerdon, first a philosopher, afterwards a disciple of Marcion, the father of the Marcionites: Cerdon

taught the existence of two universal beings, a good and an evil one, that Christ had only an imaginary body, denied the resurrection, and rejected the law of the prophets: In opposition to this heresy, the article, "*the resurrection of the body*," was first inserted in the creed; and likewise the article, "*he suffered under Pontius Pilate*." One Cerinthus, a Jew, or a Samaritan, who lived near the time of the emperor Domitian, was the founder of the Cerinthians: they asserted that the world was created by a power inferior to God, which inferior power had an only son; but that he was not the divine word; and they rejected the law of the prophets: they admitted no gospel besides that of St. Matthew, rejecting the acts of the Apostles, and all the Epistles: St. John wrote his gospel partly to refute this heresy. The Circumcellians were a branch of the heresy of the Donatists: they were a species of mad-men running about the country, seeking death (as martyrdom) by all sorts of means except hanging, which they avoided on account of Judas' having put an end to his life in that way. The Dulcinists arose from one Dulcinea, who taught that the law of Moses was rigorous and unjust, the law of Christ equitable and merciful, but that the law of the Holy Ghost was superior to all, and that this had been revealed only to himself: he further inculcated that female prostitution was an act of charity; and his followers he called the True Church: the civil power finally laid hold of him, dispersed his proselytes, and burnt him and his concubine alive. The Ebionites sprung from one Ebion, and their heresy consisted in uniting certain Jewish ceremonies with those of Christianity. The Ecclesaites, who took their rise under the emperor Trajan, were a sect nearly resembling the Ebionites. The Eutichyans held that there was but one nature in Jesus

Christ, and denied his humanity : this sect was finally swallowed up in Mahometanism, their heresy having been previously condemned in a council held at Constantinople, A. D. 450. Hearcleon founded the sect of Hearcleonites, who rejected the Old Testament, denying all prophets before Jesus Christ except John the Baptist. The Hieraxites sprung up in the beginning of the fourth century from one Hierax, who taught that Melchisedec was the Holy Ghost, condemned marriages, denied the resurrection of the body, and held that all infants were to be damned. Lucifer, bishop of Cagliari, towards the middle of the fourth century, founded the sect of heretics called Lucifereans ; he was partly an Arian, and partly a Semi-Arian, and was banished for a time by a council assembled at Milan A. D. 336.—The Massalians arose about the middle of the fourth century, taught that the whole of religion consisted in prayer, that good works were unnecessary, pretended to prophecy, and blasphemously asserted that they could see the Trinity with their naked eyes.—Theodore, bishop of Pharan, in Arabia, was the founder of the Monothelites, who held that Christ had two natures, but only one will : this heresy was condemned in a council held at Constantinople A. D. 680. After the destruction of Jerusalem, a new sect arose calling themselves Nazareans, a name at first given to all the followers of our Savior ; their religion was a mixture of Jewish and Christian ceremonies. The Nicolaïtes, or Nicolaitans, had their rise in the Apostolic age, and were among the worst sects of heretics. Novatian, a presbyter at Rome, founded the sect of Novatians : he held that an apostate could never be forgiven throughout all eternity ; and his followers were numerous. About the middle of the second century the Othites sprung up ; they worshipped a

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living serpent tamed, which they kept in a cage.— About the middle of the fourth century the Pelagians sprung up from Pelagius, a native of Britain, whose original name was Morgan : he held that the general resurrection of the dead does not follow from our Savior's resurrection ; that rich men cannot enter into Heaven unless they part with their estates, &c : his doctrines spread far over the world, and were vigorously opposed by the orthodox party. Montanus, a Phrygian by birth, founded the sect of the Montanists about the latter end of the second century ; he pretended to inspiration and great favor with the Holy Ghost. A. D. 429, Nestorius, bishop of Constantinople, broached the Nestorian heresy ; he taught that there were two natures in Christ, and two persons, the divine and the human : this heresy was condemned by the council of Ephesus, and Nestorius was deposed and banished by the emperor Theodosius : one Sergius, a Nestorian monk, assisted Mahomet in writing the Koran, and another got himself declared king in the province of Indostan, and grew famous by the name of *Prester-John*. The Priscillianists had their rise from one Priscillian, a Spaniard, and bishop of Avila : he pretended to work miracles by magic, held the principal notions of the Manichees, and maintained that it was lawful to make false oaths to support one's cause and interest : this heretic, with all his followers, was beheaded A. D. 382, by order of the emperor Maximus. The Sabellians sprung from Sabellius, who taught that there was but one person in the Trinity. The Sethians worshipped Seth, the son of Adam, whom they contended was Jesus Christ : they were guilty of great debaucheries. The most ancient sect of heretics was the Simonians, followers of Simon Magus, from whom the greatest number of heresies took their rise : they worshipped him as a

god, and were guilty of great lewdness. The Tatianites arose from one Tatian, who taught the notions of the Valentinians and Marcionites, and held that Adam and Eve could not be saved. The sect of Zacheans sprung from Zacheus, about the middle of the fourth century : he held that God required of men nothing but prayer. The Zanzalians sprung from Zanzales, a native of Syria ; he rejected baptism by water, and held that they ought to baptize with fire, and all his disciples were branded with a red hot iron three times, in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost. The Jovinians sprung from Jovinian, a monk of Milan, who held that when a man has received grace in baptism he can never lose it : they existed about the latter end of the fourth century. About the beginning of the same century Melecus, bishop of Licopolis, in Egypt, founded the sect of Melecians : they rejected all Christians that had apostatised, and hung little bells to the bottoms of their garments, and sung their prayers, dancing all the time to appease the wrath of God. Sabbathus, a Jew, instituted another sect, who propagated a mixture of Christian and Jewish doctrines. The Saturninians had for their founder one Saturninius, a philosopher of Antioch : he taught that God created seven angels, who created the world, with two kinds of men ; the good, who were to be saved, and the bad, who were to be condemned. These were all the heretics of any note in the primitive church. Heresy is understood by Divines to mean a total deviation from the principles of the Christian faith ; schism is to divide the church and disturb its peace without any just cause ; and blasphemy consists in ascribing any thing to the Deity unbecoming the perfections of his Godhead. By the common law blasphemy is defined to consist in the denial of the being and providence of

God, and a reproaching of the holy name of Jesus Christ.

In the year of our Lord 314, Constantine the Great embraced the Christian religion, but was not baptized till a short time before his death: he issued an order that all the revenues appropriated for the support of the heathen temples should be bestowed on the Christian clergy. In the fourth century, A. D. 325, the famous council of Nice met, and formed the creed which bears their name, and this creed was confirmed in a general council at Constantinople, A. D. 381. It cannot be disguised that the Christian clergy, as soon as they had got a civil establishment, still smarting with injuries, turned persecutors and pursued the heathens with rigor instead of pious persuasions. Pilgrimages to places supposed to be holy began to take place in the fourth century; as did the giving the Eucharist to children about the end of it.— In the fifth century the bishops of Rome began to make great progress towards Papal power; and images began to be placed upon the altars in Christian churches: the practice of having god-fathers for children was also introduced in this age, the reason of which seems to have been, that the parents of many children were heathens, and it was necessary to have some of the faithful as surety. In the sixth century the bishops of Rome claimed a superiority over all the other bishops, and this was acquiesced in. In the seventh century the papal power was pretty firmly established, and the popes were honored with the tiara, or triple crown. This word *Pope*, is from the Latin word *Papa*, (a father,) and was a name given to all bishops till the time of pope Gregory the seventh, when it was appropriated to the bishops of Rome: it was in the seventh century that the Lord's prayer was first publicly read in the

churches, and organs introduced. In the eighth century the papal power made great progress, and the ceremony of kissing the pope's toe was practiced, the emperor Justinian being the first who submitted to it, A. D. 711. During the ninth century the popes became very powerful in politics as well as in religion. In the tenth century the temporal power of the popes increased so much that the greatest Christian princes thought it an honor to be allied to them. In the eleventh century the celebrated Hildebrand was pope, under the name of Gregory the seventh: the cardinals, originally Popish priests in Rome, had now the red hat given them as an ensign of their dignity: the cardinals are seventy in number, divided into three classes, namely: six cardinal bishops, fifty cardinal priests, and fourteen cardinal deacons: these compose the sacred college, elect the pope, and have absolute power during the vacancy of the holy see: the dress of the cardinal is a red sattane, a rochet, a short purple mantle, and a red hat: Hildebrand raised the authority of the popes very high. In the eleventh century the crusades took place, promoted by the ecclesiastical zeal of the age: there were eight of these crusades, the last of them took place A. D. 1280: and it is calculated that above two millions of men, the flower of the youth and nobility of Europe, perished in them. In the thirteenth century pope Boniface the eighth assumed the power of deposing princes, and instituted the jubilee to be observed once every century. The fourteenth century was distinguished by several conflicts between the popes and temporal princes. In the fifteenth century the popes thought their power fully established, although some sparks of Protestantism began to appear in the atmosphere of the church. In the sixteenth century Luther gave impetus to what is called the reformation,

which has given birth to an infinitude of sects, all professing Christianity. From the time of St. Peter the Roman Catholic church reckons about two hundred and fifty popes, including Pius VII. who, A. D. 1801, entered into the *Concordat* with France, and in 1804 went to Paris to crown the emperor Napoleon. His holiness was afterwards degraded and made a prisoner of by Napoleon; but was restored to his freedom and dignity on the overthrow of that emperor. In the year of our Lord 726, a great dispute arose in the church concerning images, which endured for one hundred and twenty years; and in 787 was held the seventh general council of Nice against the Iconoclasts, or Image-breakers. There were ten considerable persecutions against the Christians, to wit: 1. Under Nero; 2. Domitian; 3. Trajan; 4. Marcus Aurelius; 5. Severus; 6. Maximinus; 7. Decius; 8. Valerian; 9. Aurelian; and 10. Under Galerius and Dioclesian. At the end of the second and beginning of the third century, the monkish life took its rise in Egypt in the deserts of the Thebais: the first monks were the Anchorites who lived separately; they were established by Paul the hermit; and the Cenobites, who lived in communion; these last were instituted by St. Anthony. A. D. 516. the Christian era was brought into vogue by Dennis the Small. A. D. 609, Mahomet preached a new religion, and produced in Asia a revolution in the religious and political world. About the year 755 the temporal power of the popes was established by the donations of Pepin and Charlemagne. The Danes were converted to Christianity in 946, and the Russians in 986, by the marriage of Wlodomir, duke of Kiovia, with the sister of the emperor of Constantinople. The first crusade, or Holy War, took place in 1096. In 1113 the Hospitaliers of St. John of Jerusalem

(since knights of Malta,) were founded. In 1191, the Teutonic order was founded in Germany. Between 1204 and 1209 the Inquisition was established. In 1377 the Wickliffites, or Lollards, arose in England; and in 1410 the Hussites in Bohemia: these were the earliest dissenters from the authority of the popes.

It was A. D. 1515, that Luther took his stand against the church of Rome. In 1522 the Anabaptists sprung up: In 1533 the church of England was separated from the Roman church: in 1534 the society of Jesuits was established by Ignatius Loyola: this sect is noted for the cunning of its maxims, as well political as religious: the founder was originally a soldier. In 1535 Calvin commenced the propagation of his doctrine. In 1545 a general council was held at Trent against the Lutherans. The Hugonots sprung up in France in 1560. In 1565 the Molinists arose. In 1568 the bull *In con a Domini* was issued. In 1569 the Puritans arose in England; and in 1608 the Armenians in Holland. In 1610 more than nine hundred thousand Moors were chased out of Spain on account of their religion. The Jansenists had their origin in 1653. The Quakers, or Society of Friends, sprung up in England in 1655. In 1685 was the revocation of the edict of Nantz; an edict which had been issued for the protection of the Protestants in France; and the revocation of which caused the emigration of numbers of French families, many of which came to America. In 1700 the bull *Unigenitus* was issued, which caused great troubles in France. In 1773, the society of Jesuits was suppressed, having been found to meddle too much in the affairs of government.

I have thus given a history of the church as briefly as possible, including an account of its early heresies,

its rise, power, progress and divisions; which, independently of the edification it may afford the reader, will serve to convince him of the Divine origin of a system that has stood so many shocks and continued to flourish amidst such a series of corruptions.

It is a pleasing reflection that the governments of Europe appear to be growing more tolerant in religious matters. The inquisition is nearly if not entirely abolished: Protestants are tolerated in France; and Roman Catholics in Great Britain have a certain latitude of conscience allowed them, although still short of what in reason ought to prevail. But in hereditary monarchies, where an established church is necessary to prop the throne, perhaps a liberal *toleration* is all that may be expected. Religious *liberty*, is the boast of the citizens of the United States; and the sacred regard to this freedom of Christian worship manifested by our most enlightened magistrates, acting in the true spirit of our glorious constitution, may be discerned in the official *veto* which James Madison, president of the United States, put upon two bills enacted by Congress in the session of 1810-11, which slightly involved the subject. Let us hope that these precedents will be adhered to through all successive changes of parties and politics. C.

LETTER XVII.

Re-establishment of Government and Laws, after the Fall of the Roman Empire, among the Barbarians who effected its overthrow.

THE various hordes of Barbarians that overturned the power of Rome were as free as they were martial;

and the spoils of a predatory incursion, or the durable advantages of a permanent conquest, as they were achieved by a common effort of valor, so they were shared in common among the chieftains and their followers. The cement of their union, whilst they were in pursuit of plunder and a place of residence, was the desire of the necessities of life and of a new home: but when that desire was gratified by success, a prevailing sense of danger in the midst of a hostile country, and the necessity of defending, if they wished to enjoy, what they had acquired, compelled them to adopt a system of polity for the general security. Each individual of these hordes, hitherto accustomed to consult nothing but his own inclinations, was induced to barter a part of his personal independence for the assurance of quiet possession and enjoyment of the spoils assigned him. Every freeman, upon receiving a portion of the lands which were divided, was bound to appear in arms against the enemies of the community. The condition upon which he received and held his lands, was this obligation to perform military service. The king, or general, who led them to conquest, had the largest portion allotted to him as the head of the colony: he parcelled out his lands, binding those on whom they were bestowed to resort to his standard with a number of men, in proportion to the extent of the territory they received, and to bear arms in his defence: the chief officers imitated the example of their sovereigns, distributed their lands among their dependents, and annexed the same condition to the grant. This arrangement is called the *feudal system*, and was in the end productive of petty intestine wars, of much bloodshed, and of a state of general anarchy. The powerful vassals of the crown extorted a confirmation for life of those grants of land which at first had been be-

stowed only during pleasure: they next procured them to be converted into hereditary possessions, and finally prevailed to have them rendered unalienable. They also appropriated to themselves titles of honor as well as offices of power and trust; and these personal marks of distinction, the legitimate reward of merit and abilities alone, were annexed to certain families and transmitted from father to son by hereditary right. They succeeded likewise in obtaining the power of supreme jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, within their own territories; the right of coining money, and the privilege of carrying on war against their private enemies in their own name and by their own authority. The nobles at last, scorning to consider themselves as subjects, openly aspired at independence: kingdoms, powerful in name and extent, were broken into as many separate principalities as they contained powerful barons. Europe, filled with the contests of these lords, was covered with castles and places of strength for the protection of the inhabitants against internal hostilities; the people were in general reduced to a state of actual servitude, and kings beheld themselves stripped of prerogative and power to enforce obedience to their mandates. This state of society and government endured in Europe from the seventh to the eleventh century. The superior genius of Charlemagne, for a moment, united all these disjointed and discordant members, and forming them again into one body, restored to government that degree of activity which distinguishes his reign. Upon his death, the genius which animated and sustained the vast system which he had established being withdrawn, it fell into pieces, and a still more dreadful anarchy afflicted the kingdoms into which his empire was split.

The disorders in the feudal system had attained their utmost point of excess about the close of the eleventh century. From that era the return of government and manners in a contrary direction may be dated. The first cause of this regeneration was the crusades, or expeditions to rescue the Holy Land out of the hands of infidels. The Christians, from the earliest ages of the church, were accustomed to visit that country which the Almighty had selected as the inheritance of his favored people, and in which the Son of God had accomplished the redemption of mankind; and the merit of these pilgrimages was enhanced by the expense, fatigue and danger of the journey. The ardor for the performance of the voyage was increased by a prevailing belief, about the close of the tenth and beginning of the eleventh century, that the thousand years mentioned by St. John, in his Revelations, were accomplished, and that the end of the world was at hand. Mankind were seized with terror; many abandoned their friends and families and hurried to the Holy Land, where they imagined that Christ would quickly appear to judge the world. Whilst the Caliphs possessed Palestine, the resort of pilgrims to Jerusalem was encouraged: but the Turks having conquered Syria about the middle of the eleventh century, the Holy Travellers were exposed to vexatious outrages.—These interruptions filled Europe with alarm and indignation: every person who returned from Palestine magnified the danger, and exaggerated the cruelties of the Turks. The minds of men being thus prepared for the enterprise, a monk called Peter the Hermit went from province to province preaching up a crusade against the Infidels. The zeal of the Hermit proved contagious: Europe sprung to arms as if at the voice of Heaven, and the phrenzy lasted for two

centuries, with various success, and eventual failure in the object. But these expeditions gave rise to new and more enlightened ideas in the minds of the adventurers, many of whom returning home at different periods, carried back with them the science and the arts of the east, which tended to dispel the gloom and barbarism of the European kingdoms. The nobles who assumed the cross and bound themselves to march to the Holy Land, required great sums of money to defray their expenses. The feudal system was repugnant to taxation, and the great lords were compelled to sell their estates to equip themselves. The leading monarchs of the west who did not engage in the first crusade, were thus enabled to enlarge their territories by purchase; and many of the nobles falling in battle without issue, their fiefs reverted to the crown; so that the latter gradually extended its influence, began to predominate and to attain a strength which repressed the aspiring spirit of the barons. The absence of many potent vassals left the kingly prerogative more free to exercise itself; whilst the church interposing its authority to preserve peace in the possessions of those who had devoted themselves to its service, a wider field was opened for the regular and peaceable administration of justice.

Another circumstance contributed to the amelioration of government. The armies which had proceeded in the first instance, overland, by way of Constantinople, to the Holy Land, found so many obstacles in their march through Germany and Hungary, that they determined to go by sea. The transports on which they embarked were furnished by Venice, Genoa, and Pisa; and the sums paid for freight alone were immense: they were, however, nothing in comparison to the profits derived from the

privileges which the adventurers secured to those states in the countries they invaded. These cities became thus enriched ; and growing powerful, they soon usurped, where they could not purchase, immunities which led to independence and sovereignty, diffused all around them sentiments of liberty, and promoted a combination of free cities against the jurisdiction of kings and nobles. What more immediately effected this result, was the forming of cities into communities, corporations, or bodies politic : and so rapidly did these corporations grow in wealth and power, that in a very little time, instead of depending upon superior lords for protection, (as was the case in the early stages of political regeneration,) they compelled the lords to blend their interests with the free cities, and for a great part of the year to transfer the place of their residence from their isolated castles into the bosom of some flourishing town or city, as an evidence of submission to the controlling influence of the latter. What thus arose from the crusades, and the profits of commerce and enterprise in the Italian states, was soon adopted by sagacious monarchs, and particularly in France by Louis le Gros, who first extended the plan of conferring new privileges on the towns situated within his own domain. These privileges were called *Charters of Community*, by which the inhabitants were enfranchised ; all marks of servitude abolished, and corporations or bodies politic formed, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination. The great barons soon imitated the example of the monarch ; and made sale, to towns within their territories, of these charters of liberty. Much about the same time the great cities in Germany began to acquire like immunities : the practice spread quick-

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ly over Europe, and was adopted in Spain, England, Scotland, and all the other feudal kingdoms.

The inhabitants of cities having thus secured their freedom, made rapid advances in acquiring civil liberty and political power. According to a fundamental principle of the feudal system, no freeman could be subjected to new laws or taxes except by his own consent; and in consequence of this the vassal of every baron was called to his court, in which they established, by mutual consent, such regulations as were useful, and granted the superior such supplies as were necessary. The free cities, in their corporate capacities, effected the enjoyment of a similar privilege; and the great council of each nation, whether distinguished by the name of a parliament, a diet, the cortes, or the states-general, and which was at first composed of such barons and dignified ecclesiastics as held immediately of the crown, at length saw the free towns exercising a decisive voice in enacting public laws and granting national subsidies. The barons who took arms against Henry III. in England, A. D. 1265, first summoned representatives from the boroughs to attend parliament. Philip the Fair, in France, introduced into the states-general the deputies of such towns as had been formed into communities. In Germany the imperial cities effected the privilege A. D. 1293, of forming a separate bench in the diet of the empire.

The freedom of the inhabitants of towns and cities was soon followed by the liberation of those of the country, either by the grant of the sovereign or the manumission of the nobles; for, during the rigor of feudal government, the great body of the lower people was reduced to servitude. Luxury favored this emancipation; for, as it increased, the great lords of the soil were easily induced, for money, to enfran-

chise their slaves. The progress of liberty was advantageous to the royal authority, which found a counterbalance to the arrogance of the nobles in the rising spirit of the people. Law began to predominate, literature to revive, regular government to prevail, population to increase, and tranquillity to reign. This, however, was effected by degrees: the first considerable step towards establishing an equal administration of justice, was the abolition of the right which individuals claimed of waging war with each other in their own name and by their own authority: another considerable step was the prohibition of the form of trial by judicial combat; a third step was the authorization of the right to appeal from the courts of the barons to those of the king, and subjecting the decisions of the former to the review of the latter. The forms and maxims of the canon law, considered in relation to the rights and property of individuals, are supposed to have contributed not a little towards the improvement of jurisprudence; as did also the revival of the knowledge and study of the Roman law, a copy of the Pandects of Justinian having been accidentally discovered in Italy towards the middle of the twelfth century. The spirit of chivalry had, likewise, a very serious influence in refining the manners of the European nations. Valor, humanity, courtesy, justice, and honor, were the characteristic qualities of chivalry; and its object was to check the insolence of overgrown oppressors; to rescue the helpless from captivity; to protect, or to avenge, women, orphans, and ecclesiastics, who could not bear arms in their own defence; to redress wrongs and remove grievances. Religion being mingled with the enterprise of chivalry, the gallantry of knighthood tempered the feelings of the nobles to a tone of humanity; war became less ferocious; and the haughty lords, who had

been the terror of their kings and the scourge of their vassals and slaves, yielded by degrees to the empire of general civil institutions and to the dictates of reason. Sometimes, indeed, the spirit of chivalry broke out into romantic excesses; but the benefits it has conferred upon mankind far outweigh the evils it produced, and compel us to recollect it with veneration.

The progress of science and the cultivation of letters had considerable effect in changing the manners of the European nations, and introducing that civility and refinement by which they are at present distinguished: and commerce, in a most astonishing degree, promoted the establishment of order, equal laws, and benevolence. The reader, who is excited to pursue this subject in a more copious strain, may be amply gratified by perusing the first volume of Robertson's history of the reign of Charles V. C.



LETTER XVIII.

Formation of the Kingdoms and States of Modern Europe, after the fall of the Roman Empire.

FRANCE.

THE history of France, taken from its origin, comprehends a period of nearly one thousand four hundred years, during which it was governed by three families; the Merovingian, the Carlovingian, and the Capetian. The commencement of the monarchy, however, is involved in much obscurity; and when,

or how, the French established themselves in Gaul? Whether it was under Clovis, or a long time before him? Whether this prince and his predecessors were real kings, or merely enterprising chieftains? Whether they rendered themselves masters of Gaul by a sudden irruption and solely by the force of arms, or by artful negotiations and a refined policy? Whether the throne was hereditary or elective? Whether the Gauls were reduced to servitude or otherwise? Whether the Franks lived upon a plan of democratic equality, or recognised an aristocratical pre-eminence? All these are questions of difficult solution, and can only be answered by ingenious theories and vague conjectures.

The Merovingian race gave twenty-two kings to France, and endured three hundred and thirty-one years. Pharamond was the first of this house; and Childeric III. was the last: Merovius gave his name to the dynasty; and Clovis was the hero of it. The crown was at that time divided among all the brothers; and it was this partition that led to the destruction of the race, and renders it so difficult to trace the history of its reign. There were three remarkable divisions: the first was that of the children of Clovis, who were four in number: after a great many conflicts and crimes, Clotaire I. remained sole master, and re-united the disjointed monarchy. At his death a new partition took place among his four children, new troubles broke out, and new atrocities were committed: Clotaire II. his grandson, acquired the sovereignty, and again united the French territory. But under his two grand children a third division was effected, into Austrasia, or Eastern France; and Neustria, or Western France. The line of Austrasian kings first became extinct; and Pepin Heristal, mayor of the palace, an office which had usurped

all authority, not only would not permit the kings of Neustria to succeed to the vacant throne, but compelled the Neustrian sovereigns to receive him as mayor; and from that moment the Merovingian dynasty was lost. These two chief magistracies of state, the royalty and the mayoralty, were hereditary; and it happened that the race of mayors were a succession of great men, whilst that of the kings furnished in general none but men of incapacity; so that it necessarily resulted that the mayors were every thing and that the kings were nothing. Pepin soon discarded the phantom of royalty which had only preserved the appearance of power by his permission, and mounted the throne himself. The first division of the French monarchy is remarkable, because it furnishes the first example of the *Salique Law*, by which females are deprived of the right of inheritance to the crown; the second, by Brunehaut and Fredegonda, two queens, celebrated by the crimes of which they were either the authors or the objects; the third and last, because it prepared and consummated the usurpation of the throne by the mayors of the palace.

The Carlovingian race endured for two hundred and thirty-six years, and gave eleven kings to France: of these Pepin-le-Bref was the first; Louis V. the last; Charlemagne gave it name, and was the hero of it. Charlemagne widely extended the French frontiers, and founded the second empire of the west, comprehending France, Germany, and almost all Italy. The crown was divided again under this dynasty; and the division was succeeded by the same ruinous consequences to the race. The son of Charlemagne had three children, who reigned in Italy, in France, and in Germany: each of the brothers had several offsprings, which produced as many subdivi-

sions of territory. All the divisions, the wars to which they gave rise, and the crimes caused by these conflicts, occupy a space of two or three generations. At last Charles le Gros, the great grandson of Charlemagne, re-united by inheritance or usurpation, upon his own head, all the estates of his grand father; but he had neither his strength nor his genius. Charles was deposed, his throne crumbled to pieces, and separate states were formed from the fragments. Thus the fate of the Carlovingians was similar to that of the Merovingians; differing, however, in this, that the extinction of the Merovingian dynasty was not attended by a revolution in the state, whereas the depression of the Carlovingian race was followed by anarchy and a kind of relaxed feudality. The French monarchy became nothing more than a tumultuous confederacy, which maintained merely the appearance of royalty. The Carlovingians having been degraded, and incapable thenceforward of enforcing obedience or of affording protection, displayed nothing but rights without power, and titles without talents. They necessarily disappeared before the most powerful and most able of their vassals. This was Hugh Capet, who was the founder of the third dynasty of French monarchs, or Capetian race.

The royal house of Hugh Capet, in the direct line, gave seventeen kings to France: the branch of Valois gave thirteen kings; and that of Bourbon several: of these three branches of the Capetian race, the direct one had the honor of commencing the re-establishment of order, by laying the foundations of new institutions and new customs, and becoming, as it were, the cradle of French public and constitutional law, the old principles having been overturned in the turbulence of the times, accruing from the feebleness and downfall of the Carlovingian race.—

The branch of Valois presents the most active and tumultuous scenes in French history: whilst the Bourbon branch is, in general, celebrated for the mildness of its princes and their great valor. It has furnished many extraordinary commanders, and two of the most illustrious kings of the monarchy, Henry IV. of whom the French never speak without affection; and Louis the XIV. whom they always mention with admiration. But the branch of Bourbon will be no less celebrated hereafter by the terrible and famous revolution of which it was the victim. This house, the most ancient of Europe, as well as the most powerful and numerous, which could reckon many centuries of brilliant existence, and of happy and constant fortune: victorious over its enemies, triumphant over its rivals, occupying many thrones, covered with glory, and full of honors, was destined to give to the earth, in the person of its chief, a great and terrific example of the fragility of human grandeur. A frightful chasm opened all at once beneath the feet of Louis XVI. which irresistibly engulfed him; himself, his throne, his power, and his family!

There were six ancient grand lay peerages of France. 1. The duchy of Burgundy, extinct in 1361, and the country finally united by Louis XI. 2. The duchy of Guienne, or Aquitaine, extinct and finally re-united by Charles VII. 3. The duchy of Normandy, re-united by the forfeiture of John Lackland, under Philip Augustus. 4. The county of Toulouse, extinct and re-united by inheritance under Philip-le-Hardi. 5. The county of Champagne, extinct and re-united by marriage under Philip-le-Bel. 6. The county of Flanders, freed from vassalage by Francis I. in favor of Charles V. at the treaty of Madrid, in 1526. The origin of these peerages is quite uncertain, and has given rise to various conjectures.

The wars of the French during the dycasty of Hugh Capet, may be classed as follow: 1. The crusades, from 1096 to 1270. Their causes were the ardent imaginations of the nobility, the adventurous courage and religious zeal of the times, the policy of the popes, and the enthusiasm of a sublimated monk. The consequences were the loss to Europe of two millions of men, and of two hundred millions of money, the impoverishment of the nobility, the encroachment of the royal authority, the freedom of the commons, some sparks of knowledge and arts brought from Constantinople, the institution of the knights of Malta, of the knights Templars, and of the Teutonic Order. 2. The wars with England, which endured nearly four hundred years. The causes were, the conquest of England by William the Norman, who was a vassal of the king of France; this furnished the first subject of hostilities. The marriage of Eleanora, of Guienne, with Henry II. of England, to whom she brought many provinces, increased the disputes between the two crowns. The pretensions of Edward III. to the crown of France; of which he took the arms and the title, embittered the contest and rendered these wars almost interminable. The consequences have been the territorial growth of the French kingdom, one of the causes of the absolute power of its sovereigns and of the decline of its great vassals; a revolution in political views, and a rivalry between the two nations, which has continued ever since. 3. The wars with Austria, which endured for more than two hundred years.—The cause of these wars was the immense acquisitions which the house of Austria suddenly obtained; by which many points of contact arose between her and France; first, there was the acquisition of the low countries and of Franche Compté by the marriage

of Maximilian with the heiress of Burgundy; secondly, the acquisition of Spain, Naples, and Sicily, by the marriage of Philip-le-beau with Jeane-la-Folle, heiress of those countries; and thirdly, the nomination of Charles V. to the empire, in preference to Francis I. his rival. The principal events of these wars were, for the first century of their continuance, in favor of Austria, who enjoyed a decided advantage in politics and arms; in the following century, on the contrary, France exhibited a great superiority in the cabinet and the field. A great many brilliant combats, and many extraordinary men distinguished these two centuries of French history, which also gave birth to many celebrated treaties, namely: those of Madrid, Cambray, Crespy, Chateau-Cambresis, Vervins, Wesphalia, Pyrenees, Nimeguen, Ryswick, Utrecht, &c. &c. 4. The wars of Italy, which lasted for about sixty years. The causes of these wars were, first, the gift of the last prince of the house of Anjou to Louis XI. of his claims upon Naples and Sicily: secondly, the claims of Louis XII. and Francis I. to the duchy of Milan. These wars were likewise productive of celebrated battles, in which many great captains figured. The success of the French was various, and the vicissitudes of fortune was so rapid that it gave rise to an opinion, for a long time entertained in France, that they could easily invade Italy, but could never preserve their conquests there. 5. The civil wars under John and Charles V. which embrace an epoch of about ten years: these wars were occasioned by the errors and misfortunes of John, the wickedness of the king of Navarre, the oppression of the people, and the villanies of Marcel and of Le Coq, who caused revolts at Paris. 6. The civil wars under Charles VI. which were produced by a fatal concurrence of characters and circumstances;

the insanity of the king, the perversity of Isabella, his wife, the depravity of his brother the duke of Orleans, the wickedness of his cousin, the duke of Burgundy, and the non-age of his son, the dauphin. These wars endured for twenty years, and were distinguished by the factions of Burgundy and Armagnac. 7. The troubles and wars of religion, which endured upwards of a century: the causes were the malady of the times, produced by the reformation of Luther and Calvin, seconded by the love of novelty in the people, the ambition of the grandees, and the vices and incapacity of the sovereigns. These wars include those of the league, so remarkable for diabolical policy and enormous crimes. 8. The troubles of the Fronde, which continued for about five years. These troubles are now regarded as nothing more than a farce to the tragedy of the league. Cardinal de Retz has given a very copious account of them in his memoirs; having been himself a principal actor in them. They are distinguished by party squabbles and contemptible intrigues, instigated by a medley of the passions of love, ambition, and avarice. The conflicts which they occasioned, however, brought into view many of those brilliant talents which afterwards adorned the fine times of Louis XIV.

From Hugh Capet to Louis XVI. there occurred five examples of the *Salique Law*, or exclusion of females from the crown: 1. That of the daughter of Louis X. le Hutin, who married the count d'Évreux: 2. The daughters of Philip-le-Long, of whom the eldest espoused the duke of Burgundy: 3. The daughter of Charles-le-Bel, married to the duke of Orleans: 4. The daughters of Louis XII. of whom the eldest was married to Francis I. 5. The daughter of Henry II. of whom the eldest espoused Philip II.

Of minorities and regencies there have been ten : 1. Of Philip I. at eight years, under his uncle the count of Flanders : 2. Philip-Augustus, at fifteen years, under the count of Flanders, his uncle : 3. Saint Louis, at twelve years, under his mother, Blanche of Castile : 4. John I. at his birth, under Philip-le-Long, his uncle : 5. Charles VI. at twelve years, the regency disputed by his four uncles : 6. Charles VIII. at thirteen years, under Anne-de-Beaujeau, his sister : 7. Charles IX. at ten years, under his mother, Catharine-de-Medici : 8. Louis XIII. at nine years, under Maria-de-Medeci, his mother : 9. Louis XIV. at five years, under his mother, Anne of Austria : 10. Louis XV. at six years, under his grand uncle, the duke of Orleans.

Of the States-General, during the Capetian race, (of which the form, the nature and the authority were, at different periods, so very different, that writers are much divided upon the subject,) there have been thirty-three held in France under fifteen sovereigns ; under Philip-le-Bel five ; Philip-le-Long two ; Philip-de-Valois two ; John II. five : Charles V. one ; Charles VI. three ; Charles VII. six ; Louis XI. and Charles VIII. two ; Louis XII. and Francis I. two ; Francis II. and Henry III. three ; and under Louis XIII. and Louis XVI. two.

In the year 1789 there existed in France thirteen parliaments, namely : 1. that of Paris, rendered sedentary by Philip-le-Bel in 1303 : 2. of Toulouse, rendered sedentary by Charles VII. in 1443 : 3. of Rouen, by Francis I. in 1515 : 4. of Besançon, finally established by Louis XIV. in 1674 : 5. of Grenoble, rendered sedentary by Charles VII. in 1453 : 6. of Bordeaux, rendered sedentary by Louis XI. in 1462 : 7. of Dijon, rendered sedentary by Charles VIII. in 1494 : 8. of Aix, established by Louis XII :

in 1501 : 9. of Rennes, established by Henry II. in 1553 : 10. of Pau, established by Louis XIII. in 1620 : 11. of Metz, established by Louis XIII. in 1634 : 12. of Douai, established by Louis XIV. in 1686 : 13. of Nancy, established by Louis XVI. in 1777.

The *Stâtes-General* of France were assemblies of the three states or orders of the kingdom, the clergy, the nobility and the people. They used to be called together by the king upon the most important affairs of state. This body is supposed to have met for the first time in 424, in the reign of Pharamond, when they confirmed the *Salique Law*. The parliaments claimed the powers of the *States-General* ; which the crown denied, regarding them as mere courts of justice, which occasioned great contests between the throne and these bodies. The convocation of the *States-General* under Louis XVI. was the immediate cause of his downfall : unable to control that tumultuous assembly, (the crown having lost its influence by its vices and effeminacy,) he became the victim of it.

In the year 1789 there also existed in France thirty-eight ducal peerages, created at different periods of time, from 1572 to 1788, and enjoyed by leading families, with estates in the various provinces of the kingdom. These high dignities, at first the reward of merit, became at last the mere attributes of a corrupted nobility, which the storms of the French revolution annihilated in an instant. Most of these distinguished families, previously to the restoration of the Bourbons, had fallen beneath the stroke of the guillotine, been impoverished, become fugitives, or worse.

Of the provinces of France, Picardy, the Isle of France, and Orleanois, were the original domains of the crown under Hugh Capet ; Berry was purchased by the crown under Philip I. Touraine accrued

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to it by confiscation under Philip Augustus, as did Normandy, by confiscation and conquest, under the same prince; Languedoc was united by inheritance under Philip the Hardy; Champagne by marriage under Philip-le-Bel; Lyonois was acquired by the same prince: Dauphiny was united to the crown by donation under Philip de Valois; Poitou, Aunis, Limousin, and Saintonge, by conquest under Charles V. Guienne and part of Gascony by conquest under Charles VII. Maine, Anjou, and Provence, by inheritance under Louis XI. and Burgundy by reversion under the same prince; Bretagne by marriage and treaty under Francis I. and Marche, Bourbonnois, and Auvergne, by confiscation under the same prince; Bearn, part of Gascony, and Foix, were the patrimony of Henry IV. Artois, Alsace, and Roussillon, were united by conquest under Louis XIII. Franche-Compte and French Flanders by conquest under Louis XIV. and Nivernois by the extinction of the feudal system under the same prince; Lorraine & Corsica by cession and treaty under Louis XV. [The provincial names have been merged in those of departments, which are chiefly designated by geographical appellations.]

Thus stood the kingdom of France previously to the late revolution, the causes and events of which can only be truly related when the passions of the present generation have ceased and the judgment of posterity has commenced. In 1801 the treaty of Luneville terminated the continental war to which that revolution gave birth: by this treaty France acquired an acknowledged right to the low countries, to a portion of Germany on the left bank of the Rhine; to Porentruy; to Avignon, which was ceded by the pope; and to Savoy and Nice. Subsequent to that treaty, Piedmont and Liguria have been added to the monarchy. In 1802 the treaty of Amiens termi-

nated the maritime war occasioned by the revolution. In 1805 the treaty of Presbourg alone saved the house of Austria, after the famous battle of Austerlitz. In 1807 the treaty of Tilsit terminated the campaign of that year against Prussia, diminished the Prussian territory one half; augmented that of Saxony to double its former extent, and elevated it to the royal dignity; reinforced the new federative system with the monarchy of Westphalia, and pushed the confederation of the Rhine to the shores of the Niemen.

The American reader, to obtain a pretty accurate notion of this confederation of the Rhine, may suppose the late French emperor to be the president of United Europe, and he will not be much in error.—The *Balance of Power*, which existed before the French revolution, was a system such as we may suppose these States would be without a general government, in which the chief object was to prevent any one state rising to a preponderancy: hence, under that system, the continent of Europe was a scene of wars undertaken for the preservation of the balance of power, and of negotiations to adjust it. Napoleon, in framing the federative system, made France the head of the confederation and himself the chief. It is upon this plan that Bonaparte attempted to regulate the commercial code of the European continent, as the government of the United States regulates the trade of the several states that compose the union; with this material difference, however, that in Europe the head of the confederacy was imperial, all the branches monarchal, and the system entirely the result of force; whilst in America the head and members of the confederation are republican, and the system of the general government the result of a constitu-

tion voluntarily adopted and maintained by all the states of the Union.

It would be superfluous to enumerate the component parts of the late French empire. Suffice it to say that the French revolution, which overwhelmed the Capetian race, broke out in 1789, that it lasted with great turbulence and much vicissitude till 1799, when Napoleon Bonaparte was chosen first consul; that the same man was, in 1804, crowned emperor of the French by his armies; and that, during the war which commenced in 1803, gained many brilliant victories, subdued or conciliated all the powers of continental Europe, except Spain, whose sovereign and family he decoyed from Madrid and made prisoners, with a view of planting his brother Joseph upon the throne.

The emperor Napoleon instituted every thing anew: a new civil and criminal code, new titles of nobility, new organization of the armies, of the finances; and he propagated new ideas of sovereignty and obedience. The forms of a legislative body were preserved, but his government was, essentially, a military despotism. Among other institutions he established twenty-two hereditary duchies, twelve whereof were in the Venetian country, namely: 1. Dalmatia; 2. Istria; 3. Friuli; 4. Cadore; 5. Belluno; 6. Conegliano; 7. Treviso; 8. Feltri; 9. Bassano; 10. Vicenza; 11. Padua; 12, Rovigo. There were three duchies in Parma, six in the kingdom of Naples; and one in Massa-Carrara. All these duchies were endowed with domains, and one fifteenth of the revenues of the provinces where they were situated was appropriated to them.

But the splendid imperial institutions, of power and magnificence, which Napoleon had framed, were destroyed by the unfortunate result of his invasion of

the Russian empire, in 1812. He entered that country with about four hundred thousand warriors; and, after several bloody battles, captured Moscow. The winter season, however, set in early; his army was distant from his resources, and in the midst of an enraged population: compelled to retreat, and incessantly to combat for safety, he was overpowered by misfortunes, abandoned by some of his allies, and compelled to fly to Paris to procure fresh supplies of men and money. With these, in 1813, he recommenced hostilities, and, at first, victory seemed to have returned to his standard. But the nations of Europe, smarting under a sense of recent subjugation, saw their advantage and redoubled their blows. After prodigious military exertions, partly in Germany and partly on the French soil, Napoleon, abandoned by his senate and betrayed by some of his generals, was compelled to abdicate his throne, and the Bourbons were restored. Exiled to the island of Elba, he remained there for some time, when, a favorable opportunity occurring, he returned to France, was received with acclamations by the army and a majority of the French people. His second reign, nevertheless, was but short. Europe once more combined against him, and his final overthrow was effected, in the year 1815, at the terrible battle of Waterloo. Abdicating a second time, he threw himself upon the generosity of the British government, by which he was detained as a prisoner, and is at present held a captive on the barren rock of St. Helena. The Bourbon family was again restored, in the person of Louis XVIII. who bids fair, from present appearances, firmly to re-establish the Capetian race on the French throne.

The historians of France are, Gregory of Tours, who left an ecclesiastical and profane history from, the establishment of Christianity among the Gauls to the

year 595 ; his narrative is simple, credulous, without method or order, and his style is that of his century : he is considered the father of French history. **Frederegaire**, author of a chronicle (undertaken by order of **Childebrand**, brother of **Charles Martel**) of a very barbarous style and method, but precious for its antiquity. **Marculfe**, a monk, who left two books of collections of general and local acts of the sovereigns of France. **Eginhart**, secretary and son-in-law of **Charlemagne**, the most polished writer of his time, has left a detailed life of that prince, and annals of France from 741 to 829. **Adon**, who wrote an universal chronicle from the creation of the world to 875. **Nithard**, who has left the history of the civil wars of **Louis-le-Debonnaire**. **Abbon**, who wrote in Latin verse the relation of the siege of **Paris** by the **Normans**. **Reginon**, who died in 915, left a chronicle of his own time, particularly esteemed for that part which relates to **Germany**. **Almoïn**, who wrote a history of France in five books, full of wonders and fables. **Fulbert**, whose epistles, written in a good style, throw much light on the events of his own time : he died in 1028. **Ville-Hardouin**, has written with modesty and candor the taking of **Constantinople** by the French, in 1204. **Joinville**, who wrote the life and reign of **St. Louis**. **Guillaume de Nargis**, who wrote the life of **St. Louis** and his son, and died in 1302. **Froissard**, who left a chronicle of the principal affairs of Europe from 1326 to 1400, much esteemed ; he was a poet as well as an historian. **Monstrelet**, who continued the chronicle of **Froissard**, to 1452. **Jean Juvenal des Ursins**, has left the history of **Charles VI.** from 1380 to 1422, and is considered partial to the **Orleans** party. **Philip de Commines**, who wrote memoirs upon the history of **Louis XI.** and **Charles VIII.** from 1464 to 1498, which are ex-

tremely valued. Gaugin, a negotiator and historian, has left a history of France from Pharamond to 1499 Paul Emile wrote a history from Pharamond to Charles VIII. which, among many faults, has the merit of clearing away the obscurity of the early parts of the French annals. The Dubellays, commanders and negotiators, have left the memoirs of their own times: one died in 1543, the other in 1559. The Du Tillet, one of whom left a very learned chronicle from Pharamond to 1547; the other a summary of the wars with the Albigenais, &c. which is considered very precious. The marshal de Montlue, who wrote at the age of seventy-five his commentaries, which Henry IV. called the *Soldier's Bible*. Belleforest, who wrote a general history of France down to 1574, which was continued by Gabriel Chapin to 1590.—Castlenau, who died in 1592, a warrior, a gentleman, and a negotiator; he wrote memoirs of his negotiations, which are considered excellent for the history of his own times. Cayet, who has left historical documents from 1589 to 1604. Pierre de l'Estoile, known by his esteemed journal of Henry III. which embraces a period of time from 1574 to 1589; he has also given the journal of Henry IV. which has been continued by an anonymous writer. Bourdelle has left memoirs of the court and private life of Charles IX. Henry III. and Henry IV. of which he was an eye witness. President De Thou, who wrote in Latin the history of his own time, from 1545 to 1607: he is considered among the best of the French historians. Mathieu, historiographer of France under Louis XIII. whose works extend from Francis I. to the reign of the prince under whom he lived.—D'Aubigne, who was for a long time beloved of Henry IV. but lost his affection by an inflexible and satirical disposition; he was the grandfather of Ma-

dame de Maintenon; and left an universal history from 1550 to 1601. Davila, who wrote in Italian, at Venice, a history of the civil wars of France, from Henry II. to the peace of Vervins, in 1598; he is an interesting writer, and was patronized by Catharine de Medecis. Andrew Duchesne has left, among other performances, a precious collection of all the French historians, from the origin of the monarchy to Philip Augustus; it was continued by his son to the time of Philip-le-Bel. Sully, the celebrated friend of Henry VI. and a great statesman; his memoirs, arranged by the abbe de l'Ecluse, give, with great interest, the reigns of Charles IX. Henry III. and Henry IV. The Sainte Marthes, celebrated by their genealogical history of the house of France. Dupleix, historiographer of France, wrote memoirs of the Gauls, which is much esteemed as an introduction to French history. Perefixe, who wrote the history of Henry IV. in an easy style. Gomberville, who has left a tract upon the origin of the French. Le Laboureur, distinguished by his excellent edition of the memoirs of Castelnau. The Cardinal de Retz, celebrated by his politics and memoirs of the troubles of the Fronde. Mezerai, who has given a large history of France in three vols. folio, and is more distinguished by the bulk than the excellence of his writings. Vittoris Siri, an Italian abbe and historiographer of France, chiefly distinguished by his Mercury or history of the times and his memoirs. Du Cange, who has left, among a great number of learned works, the history of Constantinople under the French emperors. Madame de Motteville, favorite of Anne of Austria, has left memoirs of that princess. Mademoiselle de Montpensier, has left some speculative memoirs. Father Anselm, has left a genealogical and chronological history of the house of France, and of the great officers of the crown,

continued by Dufourny and fathers Ange and Simplicien. Varillas, has left the history of France from the birth of Louis XI. to the death of Henry III.—Saint Simon, has left interesting memoirs upon the reign of Louis XIV. and the times of the regency.—Le Long has left some very excellent historical collections relative to France.

Count de Boulanvilliers, has written very well upon the history of France. Father Daniel has made some critical observations upon the history of Mezerai, which are much esteemed. Le Gendre has written upon the history, manners, and customs of the French, and is in good repute. Father Montfaucon has left monuments of the French monarchy in five vols. folio. Dubos, negotiator and historian, has given a methodical and brilliant critical history upon the establishment of the French monarchy. Lenglet Dufresnoy has left many historical works; he is diffuse, obscure, and very agreeable; his best work is his method of studying history. Valley has written a general history of France down to Philip-de-Valois, in an easy, simple, and natural style; it has been continued by Villaret and afterwards by Garnier. The President Hainault, has left a chronological work on the history of France, and is much esteemed. Duclos has left some memoirs, and the life of Louis XI. The abbe Millot, who died in 1785, has left the elements of the history of France. The abbe Mably, who also died in 1785, has left many historical monuments, particularly his considerations upon French history. Besides these, there is Voltaire's Age of Louis XIV. and that of Louis XV. and the interesting works of Anquetil.

LETTER XIX.

Formation of the Kingdoms and States of Modern Europe, after the fall of the Roman Empire, Continued.

ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, WALES, IRELAND:

AT PRESENT FORMING THE UNITED KINGDOMS OF
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

ENGLAND, still barbarous under the name of Britain, shared the fate common to other nations: she was subjugated by the Romans in the first century of the Christian era, and remained in a state of subjection nearly four hundred years. Tranquil under the protection of Rome, the Britons presently abandoned their repugnance to the blessings of peace, and, relinquishing the rude exercise of arms, betook themselves to the cultivation of arts more congenial to human happiness. Dozing for this period of time in the lap of security, they became effeminate; and when the Romans, pressed on all sides by the Barbarians of the North, were obliged to abandon their remote possessions and concentrate their legions, the Britons were unable to oppose the inroads of their neighbors the Scots and Picts. In this dilemma they had recourse, according to the custom of the times, to one description of Barbarians to defend them from another; they called in the Angles and Saxons, who, arriving from the coasts of Holland and of Holstein, plundered those whom they had promised to defend. The Britons, assailed by these perfidious allies, were destroyed or dispersed; the fugitives took shelter in the mountainous country of Wales, or emigrated to one of the provinces of Gaul, which, from them,

took the name of Little Britain, and retains it to this day. A striking analogy in the language of the two people still attests this catastrophe, at the distance of thirteen centuries. Nothing is more common than to see the sailors of Wales or Britany, whom the chance of war throws into the power of each other, astonished to find themselves speaking the same language. In the midst of their surprize they thank heaven for the singular favor, and enjoy the benefit of being understood, without the least surmise of the ancient misfortune that occasioned it.

The Anglo-Saxons, become masters of Britain, founded seven kingdoms in their new conquest; and their history, comprised under the title of the *Hep-tarchy*, presents nothing but scenes of battles, murders, and pillage, the natural consequences of such dangerous divisions. About the commencement of the ninth century, Egbert, the inheritor or the conqueror of all these kingdoms, gave a more settled form to the government; and it is at this epoch that we begin to feel interested in the details of the English monarchy. Seven families, in succession, have since occupied the throne: the Saxon, the Danish, the Norman, the Anjouvine, those of Tudor, of Stuart, and of Brunswick. The three first obtained the crown by conquest; the four last reached it by inheritance. It is not necessary to dwell upon the Saxons and Danish families; we lose sight of their wars and revolutions in the invasion of the Normans, which occasioned a complete change in the laws, customs, property, and language.

Family of Normandy.

Rollo, chief of one of those troops of northern adventurers, who ravaged the central parts of Europe

during the ninth and tenth centuries, received from Charles-the-Simple, under the title of a duchy, a considerable establishment on the western coast of France. Rollo and his band fixed themselves in this country, which, from them, took the name of Normandy. William, surnamed the Bastard, from the circumstance of his birth, and the Conqueror, from his success in arms, was the heir of this famous Rollo, and the sixth in descent from him. Troubles and revolutions had, for a long time, agitated the neighboring island ; and its inhabitants had long been accustomed to derangement in the order of royal succession ; the Saxons and the Danes had, in turn, occupied the throne : Edward the Confessor, of the Saxon line, having died, such was the aversion of the English to the Saxon yoke, that they were induced to elevate to the throne an individual named Harold, to the detriment, at the same time, of the offspring of the Saxon family, Edgar Atheling, who was only an infant, and not equal to the task of governing in those turbulent times. Meanwhile appeared William the Bastard, duke of Normandy : his court had served as an asylum to Edward the Confessor, when this prince had been unfortunate, and during the prosperity of Edward he had visited him in London. William pretended that the grateful monarch had made a will in his favor : and it is upon this title, (which he never exhibited,) that all his pretensions rest ; but the battle of Hastings, in which his rival lost his life, was to him a much stronger title. William reigned over subjugated England, and his family possessed the crown sixty-nine years. Matilda, the last princess of this house, transferred the succession by marriage to that of Anjou.

Family of Anjou.

Geoffry Plantagenet, who espoused Matilda, was count of Anjou ; his mother was heiress of Maine ; and his father, who had espoused in second marriage the heiress of Jerusalem, went to reign in Asia, where his posterity of the second bed did not become extinct till the third generation. Henry, the son of Matilda, the first of the Plantagenets who came to reign in England, was, therefore, heir of England and Normandy in right of his mother ; of Maine, Anjou, and Touraine, in right of his father ; and to these benefits he united immense possessions by marrying Eleonora, heiress of Aquitaine, who brought with her all the western provinces of France from the Loire to the Pyrennees. It was with these patrimonial advantages that the house of Anjou was established in England, where it reigned three hundred years, produced the most brilliant sovereigns of the monarchy, and furnished the most important materials for history. Henry II. Edward I. Edward III. and Henry V. are princes who are recollected with pleasure.— Their victories, their conquests, and their laws, are equally worthy of praise and remembrance : whilst, on the other hand, the reverses, the misfortunes, and the tragical end of this celebrated house, have furnished abundant reflections to the politicians and philosophers of every succeeding age in every country. The family of Anjou finished its career on the field of battle. It was there that the house of Tudor, which came in by the female line, gathered its bloody spoils.

Family of Tudor.

The Tudors, who are asserted by some authors to be descended from the ancient princes of Wales,

whilst others will hardly allow them the title of simple gentlemen, are indebted for their first instance of good fortune to Owen Tudor, who became the husband of Queen Catherine of France, widow of Henry V. This illustrious marriage procured for the son of Owen another alliance, still more profitable. Edmund (that was his name) espoused Margaret of Somerset, whose son became, by the contests of the two roses, the representative of the Lancastrians and heir to the English throne. This family reigned upwards of a century, and among the sovereigns which it produced, two more especially occupy the attention of history, Henry VIII. so famous by the tyranny of his government and the capriciousness of his character; and Elizabeth, admirable for her great ability, the extent of her views, and the grandeur of her genius. She was the last of her house, and the crown passed from her into the family of the Stuarts, who were the nearest relations and the true heirs.

Family of the Stuarts.

Walter, Seneschal or *Steward* of Scotland, whose office has served as a name for his descendants, had espoused the sister and heiress of the last king; and it was by this marriage that the Stuarts were called to the throne. No family ever presented such a succession of misfortunes as was experienced by this. Those who believe in the influence of happy and unhappy fortune, may reflect at their leisure upon the vicissitude of good and evil which distinguishes the history of this family. Robert III. second king of this house, died of grief at the imprisonment of his son, whom Henry IV. king of England, unjustly detained. James I. came to the throne after eighteen years of captivity in England, and perished in his bed

of twenty-six sword wounds inflicted by the hands of his subjects. James II. who was king at seven years of age, perished by a cannon shot at the siege of Roxburgh. James III. reached the throne when seven years old, and perished in battle against his subjects. James IV. was killed in the battle of Flowdon against the English. James V. who was king when one year and an half old, died in a war against the English, of chagrin at his disasters. A week before his death he lost his two sons in one day. Mary, a queen from her infancy, perished upon the scaffold, after a captivity of eighteen years. The Stuarts then passed to the throne of England, but misfortune still accompanied them : Charles I. was decapitated by his subjects, and James II. lost the throne by his bigotry.

The reign of the Stuarts is one of the most stormy and important epochs of the English monarchy : it is equally interesting in politics and philosophy ; for great statesmen and enlightened individuals. This family endured for more than one hundred years, and was succeeded by that of Brunswick ; which occupies the English throne at this day.

Family of Brunswick.

The origin of this family, illustrious by its antiquity as well as by its power, is lost in the obscurity of the first modern centuries : the genealogists trace it up to the Roman Consuls, three hundred years after Jesus Christ ; but historians carry it no higher than Azo of Este, who lived in the year one thousand. This prince, who was margrave of Liguria and of Tuscany, espoused in Germany the heiress of the Welfs, or Guelphs, a famous Bavarian family. The fruits of this marriage were two children : the eldest inherited the name and the goods of the mother, and

was the founder in Germany of the house of the Welfs; the younger remained in Italy upon his paternal estates, and continued the house of Este.

The family of the Welfs, by judicious marriages and much good fortune, became in a very little time renowned and powerful. Scarcely a century had elapsed from its establishment in Germany, when it found itself in possession of the duchies of Saxony and Bavaria, in a much greater extent than they were in 1806. If to these Germanic possessions we add a considerable inheritance beyond the Alps, that of the Countess Matilda, it may be said that the Guelphs, in the twelfth century, could proceed from the shores of the Baltic to the banks of the Tiber, without going beyond the limits of their possessions. But the moment arrived when this surprising fortune, which had been so rapidly accumulated, was to disappear with equal celerity. The house of the Welfs had become, by its power, an object of universal fear and jealousy. Henry the Lion was its chief. Having brought on a quarrel with the emperor and the States by his haughtiness and imprudence, he was put to the ban of the empire, proscribed, despoiled of his sovereignties, and reduced to the allodial possessions of his house, which were the country of Brunswick, of Lunenburg, and of Hanover. This event occurred about the year 1182. It is celebrated in Germany on account of the rich spoils which it furnished and the revolutions of fortune that it occasioned. Many sovereignties, some ecclesiastical, some laical, were elevated upon the ruins of the Guelphs; many others were increased at their expense; in fine, many imperial cities, such as Lubbeck and Ratisbon, for example, owe their origin to this famous catastrophe. The posterity of Azo of Este in Germany, after this great misfortune, changed their name from Guelph to that of Brunswick, derived

from their territories, which have since been erected into a duchy of the Empire. William, (the Long-Sword), the third son of the unhappy Henry the Lion, was the father of the first duke, and the head of many branches, who all reigned over morsels of their ducal patrimony. At this time there only exist two branches of this illustrious house; the eldest, which remains in Germany; and the youngest, which occupies the English throne.

The chief foreign wars of England have been three. 1. That with Wales, which endured until the union of the two countries in 1283. 2. That with Scotland, which lasted until its union with England in 1603. 3. The wars with France, which were continued almost incessantly till the English lost their provinces on the continent of Europe.

The religious troubles were, those of Thomas-a-Becket, under Henry II. the famous troubles under John Lackland: those of the Wickliffites or Lollards, under Edward III. the reformation under Henry VIII. of Protestantism under Edward VI. the troubles of Catholicism, which was re-established by Mary: of Protestantism, under Elizabeth: of the Presbyterians, under James and Charles I. of Catholicism under James II.

Of civil wars and troubles, the most remarkable were, those between Henry I. and Robert his eldest brother: those between Stephen and Matilda: between Henry II. and his children: between John Lackland and the barons: those between Henry III. and the barons: between Edward II. and his wife Isabella: the insurrection of Wat Tyler under Richard II. the conflict between Richard II. and Henry IV. his cousin: the famous civil war of the two roses: the insurrection of tanner Ket, under Edward VI. the catastrophe of Lady Jane Grey: the wars of Charles

I. against the Parliament : the invasion of Charles II. under Cromwell : the expulsion of James II. the first enterprise of the Pretender in 1715 ; and the second enterprise of the Pretender in 1745.

The titles of honor in England are, 1. The Dukes, created by Edward III. 2. The Marquisses, created by Richard II. 3. The Earls, who existed before the Norman conquest : 4. The Viscounts, created by Henry VI. 5. The Barons, who came in at the conquest : These five classes alone form the whole nobility of England, and compose the House of Lords in Parliament. They are styled *my lords*, and are magistrates and legislators born. Their nobility and its prerogatives do not descend to all the children, but solely and inevitably to the eldest amongst them.

Besides these, there are the Knights Baronets, created by James I. in 1611 : the Knights of the Garter, by Edward III. in 1350 : the Knights of the Bath, revived by George I. in 1725 : the Knights of the Thistle, revived by Queen Anne in 1703 : and the Knights of St. Patrick, created by George III. in 1783.

There have been six minorities of the English crown, namely, 1. Henry III. at eight years of age, under the protectorship of the Earl of Pembroke : 2. Edward III. at fourteen years of age, who was under the guardianship of a council directed by Isabella : 3. Richard II. when eleven years old, under a council directed by his uncles : 4. Henry VI. at nine months old, under the protectorship of Bedford, his uncle : 5. Edward V. at twelve years of age, under the regency of Gloucester, his uncle : 6. Edward VI. at ten years of age, under the protectorship of his uncle Somerset.

The Courts of Justice are, the House of Lords, which is the Supreme Court : the Court of Chancery,

in which the Chancellor is the sole judge : the Court of King's Bench, composed of four judges : the Court of Common Pleas, composed also of four judges : and the Court of Exchequer, likewise composed of four judges. These twelve judges of England are nominated by the king, and hold their places during good behavior. There is, moreover, an ecclesiastical court called Doctors Commons. All these courts are held in London. With respect to the counties, the twelve judges, once or twice annually, proceed through certain circuits, two and two, in such a way that all the prisons in England are cleared of criminals at least once in each year.

The supreme power of the English monarchy is vested in the king and the two houses of Parliament, the latter consisting of the Lords and the Commons. In ancient times, according to the feudal constitution, none but the immediate vassals of the crown could be admitted into the legislative assembly: in the reign of William the first, these vassals did not amount to more than six hundred, and the whole land of the kingdom, in property or superiority, exclusive of the royal demesne, being divided among this small number of persons, the original members of Parliament were, in general, men of great wealth and power. Whilst their riches lasted, they very willingly attended in Parliament, to court preferment, to assert their privileges, or to display their influence and magnificence. But in the course of time the members of that assembly were subjected to great revolutions, their property was dismembered and subdivided, their numbers increased, the rank and consideration of individuals were impaired, and many of those who had appeared in eminent stations were reduced to poverty and obscurity. These changes are attributed to three different causes, viz.

the constant struggle between the crown and aristocracy; the advancement of arts and manufactures; and the divisions of landed property, by the course of legal succession, the cutting off of entails, &c. These changes produced a distinction between the *great* and the *small* barons, that is, between those nobles whose opulence enabled them still to attend their duty in Parliament and those lesser vassals of the crown whose diminished fortunes made them desirous of being exempted from it. The latter, therefore, were, in the sequel, permitted to send representatives to Parliament, to whose expenses they contributed; and this was the first origin of *Knights of the Shire*. This institution was as early as the reign of Edward III. After the boroughs had been incorporated, and had been raised by their trade to a degree of consideration and independence, they also began to send representatives to Parliament. The first recorded instance of the attendance of the Burgesses in Parliament, occurs in the 49th year of Henry III. but the number was not fixed, nor were they accustomed to give a regular attendance until the twenty-third year of Edward I. when directions were given to summon regularly the knights of the shires together with the Burgesses, of which, after the example of the former, two were generally sent from each borough; and from that period both these classes of representatives continued to be constant members of the legislature. The members of the great council, under the feudal government, were originally divided into two classes, the one composed of lay, the other of ecclesiastical, barons: in the conduct of national business they usually held separate conferences among themselves, and in joint meeting, instead of voting promiscuously, they delivered, upon the part of each, the result of their pre-

vious deliberations: in all public transactions which they had occasion to determine, the concurrence of both was held indispensable. Hence, by long custom, they became two separate estates, having each a negative upon the resolutions of the legislature; when the Burgesses were admitted, they, too, obtained a separate voice in the assembly, and formed a third estate. The Burgesses were the representatives of the commercial part of the nation, and from their number and the weight of their influence, after they came to be regularly summoned to parliament in the reign of Edward I. they found it convenient to have a different place of meeting from the other members of Parliament, and began to form a separate body, which was called the House of Commons. The Knights of Shires continued for some time after, to sit in what now became the House of Peers. Although the small Barons were, in general, excused from personal attendance, yet, as crown vassals, they had still a title to vote in Parliament; and such of them as attended, even in consequence of an election, were at first considered in the same light with the greater nobility. By appearing frequently, however, in the character of mere representatives, not only elected, but having their charges borne by their constituents, their privilege of attending in their own right was gradually lost and forgotten. In consequence of the progressive alienation and division of landed property their personal influence was continually sinking, while that of the mercantile people was rising in the same proportion; and, as these two classes were thus brought nearer to a level, the landed gentry were often chosen indiscriminately to represent either the one or the other. In such a situation it became at length an obvious improvement, that the deputies of the counties and boroughs, as by the

circumstance of their being representatives, and responsible to those who had appointed them, they were led into a similarity of procedure, should meet in the same house, and carry on their deliberations in common. It is conjectured by Carte the historian, that this change was not effected before the latter part of the reign of Edward III. The coalition of these two orders of deputies may perhaps be regarded as the great cause of the authority acquired by the English House of Commons. After the members of Parliament had been accustomed to meet regularly in two separate places, the three estates were gradually melted down and lost, in the division of the two houses. The ecclesiastical and lay barons were led to promiscuous deliberation, which was promoted by the more regular establishment of government; and the progress of knowledge and the arts having diminished the power of the clergy, they seldom ventured a contest with the nobles, so that the two orders gradually sunk into the present House of Lords. The House of Commons, from the nature of its original establishment, (which was to furnish supplies to the crown,) obtained the sole power of bringing in money bills: in this business they were guided by the instructions of their constituents, who fixed the rate of assessment to which the representatives should consent. These instructions served to regulate the conduct of the members of the House of Commons, and precluded all deliberation: On these money-bills, therefore, the *maximum* of which was fixed by the constituents of the House of Commons, the House of Peers had only a simple assent or negative, and this is supposed to have been the origin of the practice of money-bills originating in the popular branch of the legislature. As the commons interfered by degrees in legislation, and in various other

branches of the business, their interpositions became too extensive and complicated to permit that they should be regulated by the opinion of constituents living at a distance. In consequence of more liberal views, it came also to be considered as the duty of each representative to promote the good of the nation at large, even in opposition to the interest of that particular community which he represented. The instructions, therefore, of constituents, were laid aside, or regarded as producing no obligation, upon any set of deputies, to depart from the dictates of their own conscience. Upon the establishment of the two houses of Parliament, the supreme judiciary power was, on the other hand, appropriated to the House of Peers. This latter division of power was thus appropriated on account of the members of the House of Peers holding their seats in their own right, which the representatives did not, and from the instructions to which the representatives were liable; it being impossible for their constituents to instruct them on the subject of a law-suit, with the particulars of which they were unacquainted. The Peers, sitting in their own right, had the liberty of forming their opinions on the spot, and, by an immediate investigation of the circumstances, were capable of deciding from the impressions made upon their own minds. The House of Lords being thus constituted the supreme tribunal, the right of impeachment very rationally fell into the hands of the Commons.

The House of Lords is composed of an unlimited number of English, of sixteen Scotch, and thirty-two Irish Peers: the House of Commons of four hundred and eighty-nine English members, chosen without any reference to local population; of forty-five Scotch members, twenty-four Welch members, and of one

hundred Irish members. Scotland has thirty-three counties, England forty, Ireland thirty-two, and Wales twelve. The territory of Wales was united to that of England in 1282 by Edward I. and thenceforward the King's eldest son has borne the title of Prince of Wales : A legislative union was formed between the two countries under Henry VIII. in 1537. The territorial union of Scotland with England took place under James I. in 1603, and the legislative union under Queen Anne in 1706. The territorial union of Ireland with England under Henry II. in 1172, and the legislative union under George III. in 1800.

Exclusive of Ceylon and many other colonies, the Antilles, Canada, &c. the extent and population of the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, were, in 1801, about fifteen thousand square leagues and fourteen millions of inhabitants; their immediate possessions in the Indies thirty-seven thousand square leagues and twenty-three millions of inhabitants; and their allies and tributary vassals in the same quarter, embraced about forty thousand square leagues and eighteen millions of inhabitants. In 1800 the commerce of England employed eighteen thousand eight hundred and seventy-seven vessels, computed at one million nine hundred and five thousand four hundred and thirty-eight tons, and employing forty-three thousand six hundred and sixty one seamen. In 1818, the debt of the British nation was computed at about six hundred millions of pounds sterling; amounting to two billions six hundred and forty millions of dollars of the United States.

England, which, properly speaking, is only a portion of the island of Britain, serves, occasionally, as a denomination for the whole British empire. The

present Parliament, which is called the *Imperial Parliament*, is the only legislative body of the nation.

Certain countries are visited for their monuments: others for the mildness of their climate; and some for the charms of society. But England is admired on account of her political institutions, her commercial operations, and the extent of her finances; and in these aspects she unquestionably presents one of the most interesting objects of either ancient or modern times: Her commerce is immense, her credit incalculable, owing as much to the vastness of her resources as to the nature of her government. Her colonies are gigantic; their extent and their population surpass those of the parent country. England reckons, in her own bosom, simple individuals who, under the name of a *company*, possess in the Indies a country more extensive, more populous, and richer than herself. The British empire, which elevates itself in the midst of the ocean, seems formed to rule the seas. Its situation, its habits, its genius, all conspire to give to it the sovereignty of that element; and it is on this account that Great Britain is ranked among the first powers of Europe. She forms, with France, the two great weights of the political balance, with which combine the other powers of Europe, following their politics, their decisions and their views. This circumstance has established between the two countries a natural jealousy and constant rivalry, which neither the habitual communication nor the reciprocal esteem of the two people can extinguish; but which the least excitement suffices, on the contrary, to increase to the highest degree of irritation. This inevitable evil, however, is not without its benefits: it nourishes the glory and the fine actions of the two countries: it developes and keeps in motion, without cessation, all their faculties: it

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confirms their love of country, perfects their industry, animates discovery, enlivens the genius of men of letters, and promotes the arts and the sciences; and, in this point of view, the national rivalry almost ceases to be an evil, and may be almost considered as a blessing. No reflecting Englishman or Frenchman can heartily wish for the total destruction of either England or France by the power of one or the other, because all history proves that the overthrow of the vanquished is soon followed by the ruin of the vanquisher.

The contests between Scotland and England, before the union, were generally for superiority; and although the genius of Scotland sometimes brightened with success, yet that of England commonly prevailed. These contests produced many considerable men on both sides—but it was in the wars with France that the greatness of the English character was principally displayed. The battles of Cressy, of Poitiers, and of Agincourt, will forever immortalize the English name. The war of the two roses, was a conflict between two branches of the royal family for precedence, and lasted for thirty years: it terminated in the marriage of the heiress of the House of York with Henry VII. who was of the House of Lancaster, after the almost total destruction of the members of both families.

Ireland, of which the obscure annals lose themselves in the night of time, was, of all the countries adjacent to England, the first to be conquered and the last to be incorporated. When the Danes and the Normans ravaged the western coasts of Europe, it was the first to fall into their hands; but Ireland owes to these barbarians her first steps towards civilization; they laid the foundations of her first cities; Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork,

were their work. From that time more than three hundred years passed away under the domination of these first conquerors, when civil dissensions and local quarrels among their descendants brought upon them a new invasion and a new race of masters: it was that of the English, who, conducted by Richard Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, and other adventurers of that nation, made a descent on the island and soon subdued it. After some time, in which policy as well as arms was employed to secure the conquest, Ireland was declared a fief of the crown of England; and since that period her history has formed a part of that of England. The population of Ireland, estimated at five millions of inhabitants, embraces about three Catholics for one Protestant; and the Protestants being the dominant party, that is, the minority exercising the power of the State, there is a perpetual agitation of the country by the efforts of the Catholics to regain their rights and the contrivances of the Protestants to keep them in a state of subjugation.

The principal English Historians are, Ingulph, Secretary of William the Conqueror, and the first Historian after the conquest: William of Poitiers, Chaplain to the conqueror, who has left an esteemed history of the conquest: William of Malmsbury, much esteemed; Matthew Paris, a celebrated historian, who concludes with Henry III. Matthew of Westminster, has culled the flowers of his predecessors, and concludes in 1307: Froissard, who died in 1402, and was educated at the court of Edward III. Caxton, who introduced printing into England, and has left a general history down to 1483: Sir Thomas More, chancellor under Henry VIII. who was decapitated in 1535, has written very finely the reign of Edward V. and part of that of Richard III. Polydore

Virgil, remained forty years in England, the most elegant writer of his time, but not the most faithful : Hollingshed, who died in 1580, one of the most esteemed chroniclers of his time : Buchanan preceptor of James VI. the best Scotch writer, eloquent and judicious, but much the enemy of the court : Stow, who spent forty years in the judicious collection of historical materials : Speed, author of the best English Chronicle, which comes down to James I. Camden, famous by his *Britannia*, or opinion of the inhabitants, laws, &c. has left an excellent history of Elizabeth : Lord Bacon, who died in 1626, has left the history of Henry VII. much esteemed : Sir R. Cotton, whose name ought to be held in honor by all the friends of science, devoted forty years to the collection, at a great expense, of a mass of manuscripts, which at this time compose one of the most precious monuments of England : Sir H. Spelman, famous for his Glossary, a real treasure of ancient customs and English constitutions : Sir R. Baker, author of a chronicle, died in 1644 : Lord Herbert, who has written the reign of Henry VIII. Sir S. Dewees, has left a journal of the Parliament under Elizabeth. Selden, a man of prodigious science, famous by his work on titles of honor : Buck, under Charles I. the first avenger of the memory of Richard III. since followed by Horace Walpole and many others, who no longer leave a doubt of the injustice with which that prince has been overwhelmed : Eikon Basilike, the best and most complete justification of Charles I. written by himself : Rushworth, secretary of Lord Fairfax, is very precious with respect to the affairs of his own time : Lord Clarendon, chancellor under Charles II. and father-in-law of James II. has left a celebrated history of the Rebellion : Whitlocke, of the parliamentary party, has left authentic monu-

ments of the affairs of his time : Rymer, who died in 1713, has left the famous *Fœdera*, or collection of public acts ; he was historiographer to William III. Burnet, Bishop of Salisbury, celebrated for his history of Reformation from Henry VIII. to 1559 ; he is very severe against Popery : Rapin of Thoiras, a French refugee, who died in 1725, a judicious writer : Carte, very zealous for the Stuarts ; has left a general history that is much esteemed : Goldsmith, who died in 1774, has made an *Abridged History* for the Schools : Hume, who died in 1776, ranks among the most celebrated historians for the graces of his style, the moderation of his principles, and the wisdom of his reflections : Doctor Robert Henry, who died in 1791, has left a history of Great Britain upon a new plan, much esteemed : Robertson, who died in 1797, so well known by his history of Charles V. has written the history of Scotland.

I cannot close this letter, without adverting to the curious circumstance relative to Richard III. The long list of evil deeds with which Richard has been reproached, has gradually disappeared under the ingenious developments of Horace Walpole and others : the assassin, the poisoner, the tyrant, and the usurper, appear now to have been a prince valiant and just, lawfully called to the throne, and crowned by the desire of the nation ; his sole crime seems to have been his overthrow and destruction by a hostile faction : the historians of his happy rival painted him according to their caprice or their interest ; whilst terror or death prevented any one from defending him. This singular discovery at the same time it proves how long and how completely the world has been imposed on, admonishes us to receive, with increased caution the statements of party writers. The profession, the employment, or the

sect of a writer, inevitably influences his narrations and perverts his opinions. C.

LETTER XX.

Formation of the Kingdoms of Modern Europe, after the fall of the Roman Empire—Continued.

SPAIN.

SPAIN is bounded to the northeast by the Pyrennees ; Portugal forms a part of its western frontier; the Mediterranean to the right and the ocean to the left, wash its shores in every other direction. Its climate is warm, its temperature happy ; and its soil, although in general sandy, is not niggardly under the hand of the industrious cultivator. The citron, the orange, the olive, and the mulberry, cover its numerous mountains and its smiling vallies. Spain has in its bosom mines of gold and silver ; on its surface are to be found celebrated vines and famous horses : its wool is the finest of Europe : It has colonies which have furnished it with immense treasures ; its coasts are lined with excellent ports, numerous rivers irrigate the land, and nature has profusely supplied it with the means of defence; yet, with all these advantages, it is very far from possessing, in a proportionate degree, the military importance of France, the maritime influence of England, the population, the activity, the commerce, in a word, the prosperity of either. The causes of this difference will probably be found in the rigid adherence of its govern-

ment to the forms of antiquity, in the predominance of a selfish hierarchy and a gloomy superstition, in the paralyzing influence of a monopolizing colonial policy, and in that supineness and corruption which all these have a tendency to produce.

Peter the great used to say that the arts and the sciences make the tour of the world; and the same remark may be made of the rank and the genius of nations; each one has its period of glory, when it eclipses or rules over others. Spain enjoyed this high privilege until the time of Louis XIV. who wrested it from her. It took its birth in the days of Isabella, and was carried to its greatest height under Charles V. Until about the middle of the seventeenth century the Spaniards gave the tone to Europe; they furnished the models of politeness and of magnificence; their gallantry became proverbial; their language was considered as a part of liberal education, their modes were followed, and their literature was cultivated. At one moment Spain held in a state of subjugation a great portion of the New World, and made the Old World tremble for its independence. At this instant she experiences a sad and cruel reverse!

The modern kingdom of Spain was formed of the inheritance of Isabella, of that of Ferdinand, and of the acquisitions which they made after their union. I will particularize them in proper order.

1. *Old Castile.* The first kings of Asturias, in extending their dominion at the expense of the Moors, placed in Old Castile dependent counts, who served as a rampart or advance-guard to their frontiers: One of these, Ferdinand Gonsalvo, the hero of his time, and for whom the lustre of his fine actions acquired the name of great, became, towards the middle of the tenth century, independent and hereditary

count of all Castile. His descendants succeeded him in this country, freed from the domination of the kings of Asturias or of Leon, until the third generation, when Elvira, his great grand daughter, conveyed it to Sancho the Great, king of Navarre, her husband. Castile was left, by the same Sancho, to Ferdinand, his second son, with the title of kingdom. Such are the origin, the progress, and the different circumstances, which was the primitive domain of Isabella's inheritance. Not very fertile, and thinly peopled, it derives its principal revenue from its wool, which is much esteemed.

2. *New Castile.* This is an extensive and fine province, the fruit of the conquests of many kings of Castile, particularly of Alphonso VI. who dethroned the Moorish king of Toledo, and took that city, Madrid, and many other places. New Castile, fertile in wine and grain, notwithstanding the aridity of the soil, which is not well supplied with water, contains the most beautiful buildings and the finest palaces of the kingdom: the environs of Madrid are embellished by the superb palace of the Escorial, the magnificent royal house of St. Ildefonso, the delightful residence of Aranjuez, and the charming mansions of Buen-Retiro and del Pardo.

3. *Asturias, Leon, and Galicia.* The Moors, having overthrown the monarchy of the Visigoths, and inundated Spain, Pelagius, of the blood royal, escaped the torrent, and took shelter in the mountains of Asturias. His asylum became the cradle of the Spanish monarchy: he there reigned under the title of king of Asturias. His victories, those of Alphonso I. his son-in-law, and those of many of his successors, extended the new dominion into Galicia and Leon. The descendants of Pelagius reigned over this country under the successive titles of kings of Asturias,

of Oviedo, and of Leon, until the twelfth generation, when Veremond III. the last amongst them, was killed, in 1036, in an action against Ferdinand the Great, king of Castile, his brother-in-law, who claimed his kingdom in right of his wife. Leon has since served, on many occasions, as a portion to the younger branches of the kings Castile, and formed a separate kingdom. Finally, the marriage of Berenger and Alphonso IX. united them, for the last time, upon the head of St. Ferdinand, their son, about the year 1230.

The province of Asturias, which gives its name to the heir apparent, is full of forests and mountains; it produces corn, fruits, and excellent wines; it contains mines of gold, of mineral dyes; and its breed of horses is remarkable for strength and swiftness.

Gallicia is mountainous, not very fertile, and the air is humid; it produces grain, oil, good wines, and a breed of horses and mules is there raised that is much esteemed; it contains valuable mines, and has some convenient seaports.

Leon presents pretty near the same aspect and yields nearly the same productions.

4. *Estremadura*, was partially wrested from the Moors by different kings of Leon and of Castile. Alphonso IX. took Badajoz, its capital, about the year 1230. This province was subject to the kingdom of Leon. It abounds in vines and pasturage.

5. *Andalusia*, separated by a chain of mountains from New Castile, was conquered from the Moors by the successive victories of many Castilian monarchs, and principally by St. Ferdinand, who took possession of Cordova and of Seville. This province is the most fertile and the most commercial of Spain: its grain, its oil, its fine wines, and its celebrated horses, have occasioned its being called the granary, the cel-

lar, and the stable of Spain. Its mountains contain mines of quicksilver, of copper, of antimony, of lead, and of the loadstone.

6. *Murcia*. St. Ferdinand, pursuing the advantages which he had obtained over the Moors, sent his son, afterwards Alphonso X. against the king of Murcia, who, attacked in another quarter by the king of Granada, surrendered his kingdom to the power of the Castilians. Alphonso, become king, completed and consolidated the acquisition of this fine province. Murcia produces in abundance all sorts of excellent fruits; oranges, citrons, olives, &c. its wine is very good: honey is found there, and the sugar-cane, and plenty of mulberry trees; these enable the inhabitants to furnish immense productions of silk, which constitutes the chief part of their wealth.

7. *Biscay*. This province, which formerly bore the name of Cantabria, and which made part of the kingdom of Pelagius, enfranchised itself by degrees from the kings of Leon, and subsisted in a kind of independence under the successive domination of the families of Haro, of Lara, of Lacerda, and was finally reunited by Henry II. in 1376, notwithstanding the reclamations of the count of Alencon, who had espoused Maria de Lacerda, heiress of the house of Lara by her mother. Biscay, rude, mountainous, but nevertheless quite agreeable, produces little grain, but abundance of fruits; its principal trade is in iron, of which great quantities are found in its mountains, in wool, in saffron, and in rosin, procured from the forests of pine with which it is covered.

These seven divisions constituted the inheritance of Isabella. That of Ferdinand is comprised in the five following.

1. *Arragon*, which takes its name from a little river that empties itself into the Ebro, has the same

origin as the kingdom of Navarre, of which it was a dependence with the title of county, until Ramirez received it as a patrimony from Sancho the Grand, his father, with the title of kingdom, towards the year 1033. This country is dry, full of mountains, thinly peopled, and unproductive ; but it abounds in iron mines.

2. *Catalonia* was conquered from the Saracens by Charlemagne. The governors whom he placed there profited of the tumultuous reigns of his successors to make themselves hereditary sovereigns. He who governed about the year 1137 espoused the heiress of Arragon, and this marriage produced the union of the two countries. Catalonia, although mountainous, is fertile in grain, in wine, and in fruits : its inhabitants are active, laborious, and good soldiers.

3. *Valencia* and *Majorca* were conquered from the Moors by James I. Valencia is, perhaps, the most agreeable province of Spain ; the air is salubrious and the temperature delightful ; the country abounds in rice, in flax, in oil, in wine, and the sugar-cane. As to Majorca and its dependencies, formerly known under the name of the Balearic Islands, they abound in corn, in wine, and in oil.

4. *Sardinia* was conquered by James II. who, as well as his successors, found it difficult to keep it in a state of subjugation to the Arragonese: it was detached from the Spanish monarchy during the war of the succession, and conveyed to the house of Savoy, who still possess it. The air is thick and unwholesome, the ground fertile, and the whole island susceptible of very great improvement.

5. *Sicily*. This island formed part of the inheritance of Ferdinand ; but as its history is so closely connected with that of Naples, which was an acquisition of the Spanish crown after the union of Fer-

dinand and Isabella, I shall speak of them both together.

The south of Italy, after having borne its part in the revolutions and divisions of that unfortunate peninsula, finally formed itself, towards the end of the eleventh century, into a regular power, which has descended to our times under the name of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. This power owes its origin to the children of Tancred of Hauteville, a noble Norman, descended from Rollo I. duke of Normandy. Their exploits against the Saracens gave birth to many principalities : a great portion of these was united in a grandson of one of them, who caused himself to be crowned. His house gave five sovereigns : that of Suabia, which succeeded by marriage and by conquest, gave four ; this last was driven out and destroyed by the first house of Anjou, called in by the Popes, who were the lords paramount of Naples and Sicily ; but then these two crowns were separated ; the house of Anjou only reigned over Naples, and that of Arragon, pursuing the rights of Constance, daughter of Mainfroy, seized upon Sicily by means of the Sicilian vespers. The house of Anjou gave seven sovereigns to Naples : one of them, Joan, adopted the second house of Anjou in France, to the prejudice of her own branch ; but Durozzo, her cousin, caused her to be strangled, and succeeded to the crown. There were then two houses of Anjou, bearing, at the same time, the title of king of Naples ; the first, which continued actually to reign, and the second, which was only titular. On the extinction of the first, Alphonso the fifth, king of Arragon and of Sicily, seized upon Naples, and united anew the two crowns, which had been so long separated ; he left them to Ferdinand, his natural son ; but this inheritance was disputed by the kings of France, in

virtue of the pretensions of the house of Anjou, and by the kings of Arragon, the legitimate heirs of Alphonso the fifth. Then the famous expeditions of Charles VIII. and of Louis XII. took place; the latter conquered Naples in concert with Ferdinand the Catholic, and these afterwards had a contest for the spoils, when the king of Arragon remained sole master. At the death of this prince the two Sicilies followed the fate of the Spanish monarchy, and fell, by marriage, to the house of Austria. Under this house, Naples, oppressed with taxes, broke out into the famous revolt of 1647; and Sicily, pushed to extremity by the profligacy of the government, did the same in 1674. The insurrection of Naples is particularly celebrated by the origin and fate of its chief: his name was Mazaniello, who, from a wretched fisherman, rose, all at once, to the command of more than two hundred thousand men, who were blindly obedient to his most extravagant caprices. He soon, however, became the victim of the prevailing disorders. The duke of Guise, profiting of these troubles, repaired to Naples, and endeavored to establish himself there; but his enterprise was unfortunate; he was made prisoner, and his party was exterminated. As to Sicily, she implored the aid of France, who assisted her for some time with men, with ships and money, and concluded by entirely evacuating the island in 1678, suffering it again to fall into the hands of its masters. On the extinction of the Spanish branch, the treaty of Utrecht gave Naples to a German branch, and Sicily to the duke of Savoy; but in 1719, by a new arrangement, the duke of Savoy received Sardinia in exchange, and the crown of Sicily was once more united to that of Naples. Finally, in 1735, the treaty of Vienna wrested the kingdom from the

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house of Austria, in order to give it to Don Carlos, son of Philip V. Don Carlos having arrived, by the death of his brothers, to the Spanish throne, and the terms of the treaty not admitting the union of the two kingdoms, he delivered up the kingdom of Sicily to Ferdinand, his second son, who occupies it at this time. The air of Sicily is very good, and the soil so productive that the Phenicians gave it the name of the perfect island; and at this day it is called the Garden of Italy.

The following provinces, exclusive of Naples, were the acquisitions of the Spanish crown under Ferdinand and Isabella:

1. *Roussillon*. John the second, king of Arragon, embarrassed by the revolt of the Catalans, mortgaged this province to Louis XI. for a considerable sum. Ferdinand the Catholic profited of the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy to regain it. The treaty of the Pyrenees annexed it to France, by whom it had been conquered.

2. *Grenada*, was the last possession the Moors occupied in Spain, of which they were dispossessed in 1492, by the united arms of Ferdinand and Isabella, seven hundred and eighty years after their invasion, having at one time subjugated nearly all Spain. The air of this province is mild, and the soil very fertile in corn, in wine, in oil, in pomegranates, in citrons, oranges, silk-worms, &c.

3. *Navarre*. This province, which, like the rest, was subjected to the Moors after their invasion, was freed from them, as well as Arragon and Catalonia, by the victories of Charlemagne: Under the turbulent and feeble reign of Louis Debonnaire, his son, Navarre selected for its chief Inigo Arista, count of Bigorre. The sovereignty of Navarre, which reckoned Arragon among its dependencies,

remained in the family of Bigorre until its extinction. The last princess of this illustrious house, which gave kings to all the thrones of Spain, brought Navarre to the house of Champagne: this latter transmitted it to the Capetians in the direct line, from whom it passed successively to the families of Evereux, of Arragon, of Foix, and of Albret, when Ferdinand the Catholic, profiting of a favorable occasion, seized upper Navarre and united it to the crown of Spain.

The kingdom of Spain, before and since the invasion of Napoleon Bonaparte, included fourteen provinces (with the Balearic islands) of all which Madrid was the metropolis. These provinces were Galicia, Asturias, Biscay, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Leon, Old Castile, Estremadura, New Castile, Valencia, Andalusia, Grenada, and Murcia.

The late condition of Spain formed a melancholy contrast to her former reputation in arms, and the spirit of freedom which the Spaniards manifested against the encroachments of their princes. The Vandals and Goths, who overturned the Roman power in Spain, established a form of government, and introduced customs and laws, perfectly similar to those which were established in the rest of Europe by other tribes of Barbarians: Society advanced there by the same steps and seemed to hold the same course as in the other nations of that quarter of the world; but a sudden stop was put to this progress by the invasion of the Saracens or Moors from Africa, A. D. 712, when, having subdued the greatest part of Spain, they introduced the Mahometan religion, the Arabic language, the manners of the East, together with that taste for the arts, and that love of elegance and splendor, which the Caliphs had begun to cultivate among their subjects.

The Gothic nobles, who disdained to submit to the Moorish yoke, fled for refuge to the inaccessible mountains of Asturias, whence, sallying forth, after the most persevering efforts for nearly eight centuries, and fighting about three thousand seven hundred battles, the Moors were driven out A. D. 1492. As the several provinces of Spain were wrested from the Moors by the Christians at different times and under different leaders, almost every province was formed into a separate kingdom, and the capitals of these several kingdoms could boast of a throne and the presence of a monarch. By conquest, marriage, and succession, however, the petty sovereignties were gradually diminished, until about the year 1481, by the fortunate marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, the former the hereditary monarch of Arragon, and the latter raised to the throne of Castile by the affection of her subjects, all the Spanish crowns were united, and descended in the same line. Previously to this marriage the power of the kings of Spain was very much circumscribed : In the expeditions against the Moors, the Christian princes were compelled to reward their nobles with portions of the conquered territory, which gave to them a degree of splendor and importance nearly equal to that of the princes themselves : this naturally made them bold and independent ; and whilst, on the one hand, the nobility overawed the monarch, the influence of the cities held him in check on the other, so that he was reduced almost to a cypher. The powers of the king were greater or less in different provinces, according to the different constitutions of the *Cortes* or parliament. In general, however, the executive part of the government was committed to the king, with a limited prerogative : the legislative authority

resided in the cortes, which was composed of the nobility, the dignified ecclesiastics, and the representatives of the cities. The members of the three different orders who had a right of suffrage met in one place, and deliberated as one collective body, the decisions of which were regulated by the sentiments of the majority. The right of imposing taxes, of enacting laws, and of redressing grievances, belonged to this assembly : and in order to secure the assent of the king to such statutes and regulations as were deemed salutary or beneficial to the kingdom, it was usual in the cortes to take no step towards granting money until all business relative to the public welfare was concluded. The deputies from the cities in these bodies were persons of great consideration, and scarcely inferior to the nobility in their political influence. Ferdinand laid the foundation for the advancement of the royal authority and the subversion of the liberties of Spain, by introducing greater splendor into his court, by instituting new orders of knighthood, by employing men of abilities, who were not nobles, in public affairs, and by countenancing various establishments of a political nature, the principal one of which was the *Society of the Holy Brotherhood*. This association, administering justice in the name of the king, curtailed the powers of the seignoral jurisdiction of the great Spanish lords, and added immensely to the royal authority. One efficient member of the cortes being enfeebled, encroachments were continued by degrees, until Charles V. finally destroyed the ancient constitution of that respectable assembly, and rendered it too weak to assert with energy the rights of the nation. Adhering, nevertheless, in form to their old customs, the nobility maintaining the ceremonies, without the virtues, of their ancestors,

and the whole nation mantling itself in the cloke of superstition, it is only of late years the Spaniards have shewn themselves worthy of their former fame.

Spain has many colonies. In Africa, Ceuta, Oran, &c. In Asia, the Philippines, and other islands. In North America, Cuba, Porto Rico, Mexico, &c. and in South America, Peru, and all the known parts of the continent, except Guiana and Brazil. The late invasion of Spain by the French, the distractions which that invasion occasioned, and the imbecility with which the cause of Spanish independence was managed in old Spain, all combined to inspire the Spanish American colonists with a resolution to escape from the pressure of the colonial system, to separate themselves from the parent state, and to proclaim themselves independent and free. This revolution is now in a state of progression, and naturally attracts our attention to the leading points in the history of Spanish America.

The subversion of the authority of Napoleon in the year 1814, relieved the Spanish nation from any further apprehensions of subjugation to the French power; but the return of peace did not immediately bring with it those political blessings which the gallantry and fidelity of the Spaniards of every rank now merited. Charles the IVth who had been decoyed into an abdication of his crown in favor of the late emperor of the French in the year 1808, did not resume the exercise of the royal functions on the expulsion of the armies of France. His son, Ferdinand the VIIth. who had been preferred and supported, during the French invasion, by the cortes, ascended the throne; and, sustained by the army and the principal ecclesiastics, suppressed the liberal constitution which had been framed in 1812, and persecuted those who had been most distin-

guished as the friends of civil and religious liberty. For five years he continued to reign, despised and detested by his own subjects, and contemned by foreign powers. In the year 1820, however, a crisis arrived, which put an end to his licentiousness and despotism. A body of soldiers, assembled at Cadiz for the avowed purpose of being embarked for Spanish America, to aid in putting down the rebellion in that part of the Spanish dominions, either from the want of pay or a disinclination to the service for which they were intended, revolted, turned their arms against the royal authority, proclaimed the constitution which had been formed by the cortes in 1812; and, having been joined by detachments of troops in other parts of the kingdom, and encouraged by the people, finally compelled the king to convoke the national cortes in form, and swear to maintain the constitution which he had formerly suppressed. That body accordingly assembled at Madrid, in the month of July, in the year 1820. They appear to be busily engaged in remodelling the government, and adapting the institutions of the monarchy to the new circumstances in which Spain finds herself.

PORTUGAL.

Portugal, to which most of the observations relative to Spain will literally apply, fronts Spain in almost its whole length. It is separated from it by high mountains, by sterile plains; and still more by a constant rivalry, and an interminable jealousy, which has animated these two neighboring nations. The Portuguese and the Spaniards have a common origin, and hence there exists between them a great similitude of language, of manners, of habits, of laws

and government. This resemblance, nevertheless, has been productive of nothing but evil ; of prolonged quarrels, of reciprocal claims, of mutual invasions, of successes and reverses, of fears and dangers, which, for a long period, have created between the two people an enmity that time has made habitual, and which policy has formed into system. Ever since the establishment of the balance of power in Europe, Portugal has been found arrayed against Spain. It was only when engaged in a common cause with Spain against France, her arms were united with those of the Spaniards. I have already said that every nation has its moment of glory and celebrity : that of Portugal was under Emanuel the Great, when Vasco di Gama opened to Europe the route by sea to India, and to his countrymen the path to immortal renown : Albuquerque elevated Portugal to a high decree of splendor, whilst Camoens sung her praises for posterity.

There are six provinces in Portugal ; Entre-Douro and Minho, Tralos-Montes, Beira, Estremadura, Alentejo, and Algarva. Of these, Entre-Douro and Minho and Tralos-Montes were the primitive domain, given in dowry to Henry of Burgundy by Alphonso VI. king of Castile, about the year 1090 : Beira and Estremadura were conquered chiefly by Alphonso Henriquez ; and Alentejo and Algarva were conquered principally by Sancho I. and Alphonso III. The air of Portugal is considered more temperate than that of Spain on account of its proximity to the sea. Its productions are olives, wines, oranges, lemons, almonds, figs and raisins. There are mines of iron, tin, lead, quarries of marble, and some precious stones. Much salt is made from the sea water, especially in the bay of St. Ubes, whence a great deal is exported.

In the year 1580 there was a failure in the royal line of Portugal, and Philip II. king of Spain subdued the country; but in 1640 there was a great revolution, and the crown was conferred on John, duke of Braganza, whose descendants still enjoy it. Lisbon is the capital of Portugal. But this city having been threatened by the French, previously to their late invasion of Spain, the royal family was conveyed, under convoy of a British squadron, to Brazil, a Portuguese colony in South America, and established the seat of government at Rio Janeiro. Besides this colony, the Portuguese have several others in Asia and Africa. In the year 1808, the population of Portugal amounted to 3,000,000 of souls.

The presence of the royal family in Brazil necessarily gives to that portion of the Portuguese territories a great degree of importance. It has of late been dignified with the name of kingdom; and, from present appearances, the sovereign and his court will remain there, and thus place Portugal, with regard to its government, in the posture of a colony. This degradation has been already felt; and to that cause, as well as to long continued political, civil, and religious, abuses, and the favor shewn to British officers, who have been placed in high commands there, in disregard of the natives, may be ascribed the recent revolutionary movements in Portugal. The military force at Oporto, following the example of those at Cadiz, in Spain, has invoked the nation to the formation of a free constitution, to the necessity of which the Portuguese people seem willingly to assent.

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LETTER XXI.

Formation of the Kingdoms of Modern Europe after the fall of the Roman Empire—Continued.

ITALY.

The country of Italy is, without contradiction, the most interesting of Europe, on account of its history, its extraordinary works, and its soil; it possesses one of the most delicious temperatures of the earth; and it has been the cradle of the arts, the school of taste, the repository of the master-works of antiquity and of modern beauties. Anciently, Italy vanquished and subjugated the universe; but as if she were doomed to expiate in the most cruel manner so elevated a fortune, she has since been trodden under feet by all nations.

To the anarchy produced in Italy by the dismemberment of the empire of Charlemagne, succeeded, by conquest, the domination of the emperors of Germany. Their power was absolute during the times of the family of Saxe; but it was greatly shaken under that of Franconia, and totally destroyed under that of Suabia, by the intrigues and the policy of the Popes; who, dreading such powerful neighbors, contrived to keep them in a state of perpetual embarrassment at home and abroad. This famous quarrel between the Emperors and the Popes, known under the name of the war of the Priesthood, or of the Guelphs and Ghibbellines, continued three centuries, during which Italy, after experiencing all the miseries and horrors of fanaticism, of confusion, and of intestine broils, finally took the form which, in a great measure, it has preserved to our days.

This form embraces a variety of subordinate principalities. Of Naples I have already spoken. Tuscany, after innumerable revolutions and troubles without end, together with Florence, found repose and happiness under the administration of the Medici, who reigned a long time by the reputation of their virtues before they reigned under the authority of a title. Alexander, the first duke, was created by Charles V. in 1531. Pius V. elevated Cosmo to the dignity of grand duke in 1569. This country, on the extinction of the house of Medici, passed to that of Lorraine in 1737, on condition that it should never be united to the Austrian monarchy. In 1802 it passed, by treaty, from the house of Lorraine to the Bourbons of Parma, who possessed it for some time under the appellation of the kingdom of Etruria.

Parma and Placenza, after having been given by the Popes to the house of Farnese, passed, on its extinction, to a Branch of the Bourbons of Spain, who subsequently ceded it to France in exchange for the kingdom of Etruria.

Modena, possessed for a long time by the house of Este, was merged by changes in the modern kingdom of Italy. Its sovereign, the last male of the family, received the Brisgaw as an indemnity.

Milan and Mantua, by various political circumstances, passed to the house of Austria in 1714 and 1708. This division of Italy disappeared under new arrangements, and made part of the kingdom of Italy.

Genoa, after a multitude of revolutions, became, in 1528, by the courage of the famous Andrew Doria, a celebrated aristocratical republic, which lost its constitution by the revolutions of Europe, and was united to France in 1805.

Piedmont and Montserrat accrued to the house of Savoy by marriage, by the favor or grant of the emperors. The revolutions which affected so many other states, annexed these also to France.

Venice, which had formed itself, in lapse of time, into an aristocratical republic, and which has existed until our days, displaying much of wisdom, of glory, of policy, and of power, has disappeared amidst the convulsions of modern times, and composed a great part of the kingdom of Italy.

The possessions of the Popes, whose temporal power was chiefly founded by Pepin and Charlemagne, and which were considerably increased by papal policy and the influence of spiritual authority, were, for a short period, entirely wrested from the Holy Father. Part of these possessions were incorporated with the kingdom of Italy, and part politically united to the French empire. As a consolation to the Romans for the loss of their Pontiff, Napoleon proclaimed Rome the second imperial city of his dominions, and exerted himself to cleanse and embellish that ancient mistress of the world.

But these modern arrangements, which were consequent upon the wars of the French revolution, were, for the most part, disregarded by the powers of Europe upon the downfall of Napoleon. The states of Italy were carried back, as nearly as possible, to their organization in 1792. They were remodelled to their present territorial limits and government by the treaty of Vienna of the 9th of June, 1815. By that treaty, Genoa was united to Sardinia, certain districts of Savoy were ceded to the canton of Geneva, and the ancient sovereignty of the house of Austria in Italy was fully recognised. In this recognition are included Istria, Dalmatia, the ancient Venetian isles of the Adriatic, the

mouths of the Cattaro, the city of Venice, with its waters, as well as all the other provinces and districts of the formerly Venetian states of the Terra Firma, upon the bank of the Adige, the duchies of Milan and Mantua, the principalities of Brixen and Trent, the county of Tyrol, and other valuable possessions. The sovereignty of the duchies of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola, was given to the Archduke Francis d'Este, and the sovereignty and property of the duchy of Massa, and the principality of Carara, and the imperial fiefs in Lunigiana, to the arch-duchess Maria Beatrice d'Este. To the Empress Maria Louisa, the wife of Napoleon, were given, in full property and sovereignty, the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla. The duchy of Tuscany was re-established in its ancient integrity, and the rights of sovereignty and property re-invested in the archduke Ferdinand of Austria, as formerly possessed by him. The principality of Lucca was erected into a duchy; and the Pope having been previously reinstated at Rome, the Marches, with Camerino, and their dependencies, the duchy of Benevento, and the principality of Ponte Corvo, were restored to the Holy See, which, by the same treaty of Vienna, was also authorized to resume possession of the legations of Ravenna, Bologna, and a part of Ferrara. Ferdinand the IVth was restored to the throne of Naples; and such regulations were adopted and guarantees entered into, by the principal monarchs, as seemed to ensure the duration of the sovereignties, thus re-established in Italy, upon the basis of an ameliorated feudality. More liberal ideas, however, appear to have been too widely disseminated, by the political agitations of the French revolution, to allow of the repose so desirable to despotic rulers. Representative govern-

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ment is the great object at which the subjects of the emperors and kings of Europe all aim; and the Italian states, next, perhaps, to Spain, are the most extensively pervaded by the spirit of reformation. This has been manifested during the present year (1820) in the revolution which has occurred in Naples, where the soldiery, emulating the Spanish army at Cadiz, have been instrumental in subverting the despotic government which had so long prevailed in that delightful region.

The painter who should pretend to delineate on the map of Italy, the marches and the conflicts of the various armies which, at different periods, have harassed its population and stained its soil with blood, would soon find his pallet exhausted of colors and his tablet devoid of intelligence. I shall, therefore, not attempt to pourtray in words what would be so difficult for the pencil; and, abandoning the military tracks of Bonaparte, of Suwarrow, of Championet and of Macdonald, as well as the routes of those invaders who preceded them, I will turn my attention to the poets and the artists of a country, whose genius, in one shape or another, appears to be almost imperishable.

Poets, &c.

Dante, of Florence, the father of Italian poetry, was famous by his *Hell*, his *Purgatory*, and his *Paradise*.

Petrarch, of Arezzo, has immortalized the lovely Laura, the Fountain of Vaucluse, and himself, by his tender and harmonious verses.

Boccace, of Tuscany, the disciple and the friend of Petrarch, was admired for his Novels. He lived

a considerable time at Naples in the reign of queen Joan.

Machiavel, of Florence, was celebrated for his political treatise entitled *The Prince*, and by his Florentine history.

Ariosto, of Reggio, was the first poet of Italy with Tasso; more lively, more animated, than the latter. He is the author of *Orlando Furioso*. The late Charles James Fox, who, with a view, to improve his elocution as well as his literary taste, made himself well acquainted with the merits of the best ancient and modern poets, ranks Ariosto next to Homer.

Guicciardini, of Florence, was celebrated by his personal worth and his writings; and above all, by his history, in Italian, from 1494 to 1532.

Paul Jovian, bishop of Nocera, was celebrated by his writings, and particularly by his history, in 45 books, which comes down to 1544.

Tasso, of Naples, was the first poet of Italy with Ariosto; but more noble and more correct than the latter. He has written *Jerusalem Delivered* and *Aminta*. Mr. Fox thinks Tasso below Ariosto; yet at the same time acknowledges that Metastasio, who he admits ought to be a better judge of Italian poetry than himself, upon the whole gives Tasso the preference.

Guarini, of Ferrara, was a poet celebrated by his works, of which the most known is the *Paster Fido*.

Gallileo, of Pisa, was celebrated for his science and misfortunes. He rendered himself immortal by his astronomical discoveries.

Torricelli, of Faenza, was the successor of Gallileo in the mathematical career. He invented the microscope.

Metastasio, of Rome, was a dramatic poet, celebrated by the perfection to which he brought lyric tragedy.

Painters, &c.

Cimabue and **Giotto**, of Florence, were the restorers of painting and the fathers of the Florentine school.

Raphael Sanzio, of Urbino, ranks among the first of painters.

Leonardi da Vinci, of Florence, was one of the greatest men of his time.

Perugino, of Perugia, was the master of Raphael.

Of these, the chief productions are, the *Transfiguration*, an immortal work, (by Raphael,) considered as the first picture of the world: *St. Cecilia*, which is very famous; and the celebrated *Halls of the Vatican*.

Andrew del Sarto Vanucchi, of Florence, is chiefly esteemed for variety: The *Madona del Sacco*, and *St. Andrew adoring the cross*, are his principal works: He was a faithful copier.

Corregio Allegri, of Corregio, excelled in the graces of his art, and was the inventor of his own style of painting. He was skilful in fore-shortening. Among his best productions is the *Christmas Night*, which is allowed to be admirable.

The **Parmesan Mazzola**, of Parma, who was called the son of the Graces, and whose works are very rare, distinguished himself by his *Moses*, his *Adam and Eve*, and some other pieces. He is supposed to have been the inventor of the art of etching with aquafortis.

Julius Romani Pippi, of Rome, was a pupil of Raphael, and equal to his master. Among other

works, he left the *Victory of Jupiter over the Giants*.

Michael Angelo Buonarrotti, of Tuscany, was the first of the Italians for architecture and sculpture, and the emulator of Raphael in painting. His chief works are the *last Judgment*, the *Crucifixion*, and the *Church of St. Peter*.

Titian Vecellio, of Venice, was the first of the Venetian school; and the greatest colorist ever known. Reubens is compared to him. Among his best performances are the *Martyrdom of St. Peter*, *A last Supper*, and *Christ crowned with Thorns*.

Paul Veronese Caliari, of Verona, possessed the richest and the finest genius for the composition of a picture. Of his performances, *Jesus Christ with the Pharisee* is distinguished.

Tintoretto Robusti, of Venice, astonished by the enthusiasm of his genius and the boldness of his pencil. *St. Mark*, and the *Crucifixion of Jesus Christ*, are among his best pieces.

Caravagio Amerigi, of Milan, had fine talents; but has too frequently copied nature in her deformities.

Barocchi, of Urbino, excelled in subjects of devotion. Many of his performances are to be found at the Louvre, in Paris.

The Caracchi, Lewis, Anthony, and Hannibal, together with their pupils, brought the art of painting to great perfection in all its branches. Among their productions the *Mother of Pity*, by Hannibal, is distinguished. Many of their works are held in great esteem.

Dominichini Zampieri, of Bologna, excelled in purity of design, in the beauty of his heads, and the naturalness of his attitudes. His *Communion of St. Jerome*, (which ranks after the *Transfiguration of Raphael*,) is his chief piece.

Guido Reni, of Bologna, was remarkable for the aggregate of his perfections ; without being equal to certain great masters, he united more of beauty, of grace, and of finish, than any of them. His master-work is *St. Peter Weeping*, a celebrated performance, and supposed to be the most complete of Italy. This artist's love of gaming reduced him to great distress.

Joseph Ribera, a Spaniard, is considered as the first of the Neapolitan School. He delighted in subjects of the terrible kind, and, among other things, has painted the *Twelve Prophets*. He sometimes engraved in aquafortis.

Albano, of Bologna, was principally celebrated for the noble and regular graces of his heads. There is, however, very little variation in these heads ; for, having a beautiful wife and fine children, Albano sought for no other models. The fair Doralice was his Venus, and his sons were his Cupids.

Cavedoni, of Modena, was an esteemed disciple of Hannibal Caracchi, whose style he has imitated. He was so unhappy in his family that he died mad.

Andrew Sacchi, a Roman, and a disciple of Albano, imitated the graces of the latter, and is thought to have surpassed him in taste. Of his works, *St. Romuald* is very much esteemed.

Guerchini Barbieri, so named because he had a cast in one of his eyes, was of Ferrara, and celebrated for the manly beauty of his traits, the richness of his pencil, and the facility of his productions. Among his principal pieces, *Dido* is much esteemed.

Salvator Rosa, of Naples, was a celebrated painter, engraver, and poet, famous for his travels, his sea-pieces, his battles, and, above all, by the brilliant coloring of his pictures.

Grimaldi, of Bologna, a pupil of Caracchi, was a painter and engraver, who chiefly excelled in landscape. Cardinal Mazarine employed him three years in embellishing the Louvre.

The Chevalier Bernini, of Naples, was a sculptor, painter, and architect, of considerable merit.

Preli, of Naples, was esteemed for the richness of his invention and the strength of his coloring. Of his productions, the *Martyrdom of St. Peter* is distinguished.

Luke Jordans, of Naples, astonished by the facility of his talents, and has left many works behind him. He was employed by the king of Spain to paint for some time in the Escorial.

Maratti Carlo, of Ancona, is much esteemed for his fine pictures, of which his *Virgins*, his ravishing expression, and his majestic ideas, are exceedingly admired.

Solimeni, of Naples, was remarkable for his powers of imagination, and the freshness of his coloring.

Rosalba Cariera, a lady, of Venice, excelled in crayon and miniature. She became blind in 1748. She was much employed by the English nobility.

By the revolutions of modern times, the most celebrated Antiquities and Monuments, as well as Paintings, were torn from Italy. Those objects of admiration which drew travellers and students to Rome; which adorned that city, Venice, and Florence; which made the Vatican and its garden, the capitol, the palaces of Farnese, of Borghese, and the villas Albani and Ludovisi, most worthy of being visited by strangers, were, with few exceptions, wrested from their owners and conveyed to France. The Romans of our days had no Camillus to preserve them from the ravages of the Gauls.

But the greater portion of Europe in arms against France, did that for Italy, which Italy could not do for herself. The works of art which had been wrested by conquest from the Italian possessors, and transported to Paris, to enrich the Louvre, were reclaimed, and finally restored to their former owners. Nor did this take place with regard to Italy alone. The Prussians, the Belgians, and the Spaniards, seized upon the celebrated pictures and other distinguished works which had been respectively taken from them; so that all that the French capital had, in this respect, gained by war, by the vicissitude of war it lost. C.

LETTER XXII.

*Formation of the Kingdoms of Modern Europe,
after the fall of the Roman Empire.*

GERMANY.

The origin of the various tribes of Barbarians that inhabited the country anciently denominated Germany, is nearly lost in the mists of antiquity. Of the enlightened men who have treated of their early history and manners, Tacitus stands the most distinguished. Interesting and authentic traits of their spirit and character may also be gleaned from the writings of Julius Cæsar, who was personally acquainted with their customs, and had frequently experienced the effects of their ferocious valor. It is universally agreed by historians and commentators,

that the ancient Germans were addicted to war, influenced by masculine ideas of independence, and were the intrepid assertors of public liberty. The courage of their chiefs has often made the Roman eagle droop the wing, and the ablest generals of the imperial mistress of the world seek for safety in flight. But whilst they were thus remarkable for the virtues, they were likewise conspicuous for the vices, of Barbarians. Gaming and drunkenness were carried to excess; and there was very little to admire in their private morals, or their predominant manners, if we except the parental vigilance, the inviolable chastity, and the undaunted heroism of their women. The love of freedom was their ruling passion; and Montesquieu, with no small degree of probability, concludes that the most liberal principles of modern government originated in the woods of Germany.

The Roman empire of the West, which ended with Romulus Augustulus, was succeeded by the agitations of those warlike tribes, which, from the north of Europe and the interior of Asia, sought for a milder climate, for better habitations, and perhaps for revenge of the wrongs inflicted by Rome. Their migrations and their battles changed the condition of society, alloyed civilization with barbarian policy, and for a considerable duration of time kept Italy, Gaul, and Germany, in a state of commotion. These inquietudes had not yet subsided, when Charlemagne, in the year 800, was crowned at Rome by Pope Leo III. and revived the western empire, with the consent of Nicephores, who then reigned in the east. This empire was afterwards divided between the four sons of Lewis-le-Debonnaire, who was the son and successor of Charlemagne. From the division of the dominions of the latter, until the election

of Rodolph of Hapsbourg, comprehending an interval of upwards of three hundred years, German history embraces four distinct periods, distinguished by the houses of Saxony, of Franconia, of Suabia, and by an anarchy of long continuance.

During the contest of ambitious rivals for power and precedence, independent communities, bordering on Germany, prone to plunder and fond of spoil, did not fail to take advantage of prevailing troubles; the Hungarians, the Bohemians, the Slavonians, the Venedians, the Danes, and other banditti, each according to their genius and situation, broke in upon the Germans and ravaged their territory. From these predatory invasions Germany was in a great measure freed by the princes of the house of Saxony, among whom Henry the Fowler was much distinguished by his abilities as a warrior and statesman, and who enlarged and fortified his country, improving the morals of the people and ameliorating the state of society. But his son Otho the Great, who reigned A. D. 936, obtained more splendid successes in the north and in the south of Europe: By marriage and by conquest he extended his authority into Italy, wrested the imperial diadem from every competitor, compelled the Pope to acknowledge his power, and attached the dignity of emperor to the sovereign of the German States. The superior capacity of Otho the Great, is best described by the fortunes of his successors, Otho II. and III. and Henry II. who, from the year 973, till the beginning of the eleventh century, reigned in the midst of political and religious troubles, unequal to the task of retaining in steady subjection a discordant population, excited by restless spirits to rebellion and independence.

The imperial sovereignty of the house of Saxony became extinct on the death of Henry II. and in the year 1024 it was transferred to the House of Franconia, in the person of Conrad II. who, by the female line, was descended from Otho the Great. He was solemnly elected to the throne in the presence of all the high dignitaries of the empire, and of the freemen assembled for that purpose. There were five emperors of the House of Saxony in the space of 105 years : The House of Franconia also produced five, in the course of 109 years. The princes of this latter family were, in general, remarkable for their misfortunes. Henry III. who reigned A. D. 1039, was the most illustrious ; distinguished for justice, humanity, and love of literature. Henry IV. who came to the throne in the year 1056, at a tender age, is celebrated by the vicissitudes of his life. Involved in a quarrel with the ablest of the Popes, whose cause was well supported by the Normans, who established themselves in Italy under Henry III. he was compelled to mingle the most servile degradations with the splendor of royalty ; and finally, oppressed by the usurpation of his son and the contrivances of the head of the church, he became a wandering outcast, a stranger to the offices of friendship, and was contemptuously spurned from the meanest employments. Under the house of Franconia the empire went to decay, and in every quarter petty princes started up, rendered important by the turbulence of the times, and laying claim to, and exercising within their respective jurisdictions, all the privileges of sovereign power.

The house of Suabia endured for 116 years, and gave six emperors to the German crown. Frederick I. called Barbarossa, was the hero of it. He reigned in the year 1152. During the life of this prince,

Germany began to recover from Papal influence ; but the imbecility of those who followed him, and a succession of able Popes, plunged the empire anew into religious squabbles, and eventually involved the German states in utter confusion. Several princes of the Suabian line, at the instigation of the Holy See, took up the cross, and marched to Palestine against the Infidels. Such was the case with Frederick I. and II. But nothing could appease the implacable policy of the ecclesiastics, who were sufficiently influential in Germany to set up emperors of their own, and to support them against the regular claimant. Conrad IV. who reigned about the middle of the thirteenth century, was the last monarch of the house of Suabia : Several nominal sovereigns preceded, mere phantoms, strangers alike to the imperial residence and to the diadem. Universal disorder prevailed : Usurpation and rapine triumphed ; until the Germans, of every class, instructed by their sufferings, or wishing to enjoy their acquisitions, determined once more to court order and tranquillity by the election of a chief to guard the general interests of the nation. The choice fell upon Rodolph of Hapsbourg, A. D. 1273, a man well qualified for the station, and who thus laid the foundation of the fortunes of his family. It was under Frederick II. of the house of Suabia, that the Teutonic order was introduced into Germany. The knights of this order, who sprung from an obscure beginning in the Holy Land, rose to be a military institution of high renown, and were greatly instrumental in the propagation of the Christian religion in the North of Europe ; they drove the Pagans out of Prussia, and spread the Gospel among the Russians. In the course of time they amassed immense wealth, which, abusing their power, they were una-

ble to retain, and, in modern times, have sunk into a state of insignificance.

The history of Hapsbourg, is, in effect, the history of all Europe from the year 1273. The Austrian branch of the family, if we except Charles V. of Spain, has always been the most powerful; but Frederick II. of Prussia, denominated the Great, and who is of the same house, is, perhaps, the most illustrious prince of the line. About the middle of the sixteenth century the race of Hapsbourg of what was called Old Austria, was divided into the Austrian-Spanish branch, and the Austrian-German branch, the former of which became extinct in the year 1700, and was succeeded, on the death of Charles II. king of Spain, by a branch of the house of Bourbon. The Austrian-German branch became extinct A. D. 1740, on the death of Charles VI. when Maria Theresa intermarried with Francis of Lorraine, which laid the foundation of a new house of Austria.

The German historians to be consulted for the particular incidents of the reigns of the princes of the house of Hapsbourg are Heiss, Pfeffel, and Koch; but the English reader may gather all the material facts from accurate compilations in our own language. Statesmen of modern times have considered it unnecessary to be very deeply versed in those European transactions which took place previously to the fifteenth century. As matter of curiosity, and as a means of enlarging our knowledge of human nature and the destiny of nations, it is certainly desirable to be made intimately acquainted with the occurrences of every century: But for the purpose of fully comprehending the combinations of policy and negotiation for the last two hundred years, it is only requisite to commence our

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attentive researches at the commencement of the thirty years war, which was terminated by the treaty of Westphalia, A. D. 1648. Religion, which was the ostensive cause of this long war, was, in reality, nothing more than a veil to disguise the ambition of the house of Austria, which sought to erect upon the ruins of the confederacy of German states an hereditary throne. The *Catholic League* and the *Evangelical Union* kept the Germans in a ferment; but these parties did not blind France and Sweden to the aspiring efforts of the Austrian monarchy. Those two powers threw their weight into the scale of the minor German princes, who were thereby preserved from ruin and subjection. A war of such duration was the nursery of genius, both in the camp and the cabinet, and, accordingly, we find, on the side of Austria, Tilly, Walstein, Piccolomini, and others; on that of France, Turenne, Conde, and the artful Richlieu; and on the part of Sweden, the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, Oxenstiern, and Torstenson. This conflict will be forever immortalized among military men by the battles of Prague and Rocroi, of Leipsic and Lutzen, and various others. Most of the parties concerned in it gained an accession of territory by the treaty of Westphalia, which became a part of the fundamental law of the Germanic empire.

The next important war in which Germany was engaged, was, at the instance of the House of Austria, for the Spanish succession. Charles II. of Spain, had devised the crown to the grandson of the French king Louis XIV. who, in conjunction with the Spanish nation, entered into a contest with the emperor of Germany, and several other powers, who claimed the succession for a member of the Austrian family. Many brilliant men arose, and

many gallant exploits were performed during the contest. The battles of Blenheim, of Ramillies, of Malplaquet, of Almanza, and various other combats, will never be forgotten; and readers of a warlike temper, still dwell with enthusiasm on the names of Villars and Vendome, of Eugene and Marlborough. Spain, which then retained a considerable portion of the possessions that Charles V. enjoyed during his attempt to establish an universal monarchy, was rent to pieces: Holland was secured by strong barriers against the encroachments of France; the House of Bourbon acquired Spain proper and her colonies; the elector of Brandenburg was recognised as king of Prussia; the Milanese, Naples, Sardinia and the Low Countries, were acquired by the House of Austria; Sicily accrued to the sovereign of Savoy; and Minorca, New-Foundland, and Gibraltar, fell into the hands of the English. This contest commenced in the year 1700, and was concluded by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

The next war of importance was that in the year 1733, for the succession of Poland, in which Russia, Austria, and the Empire, sustained the pretensions of Augustus II. against France, who supported the rights of Stanislaus Leczinski; the former claiming the crown in virtue of his descent; the latter, by election. Augustus eventually retained the dignity and authority of sovereign, whilst Stanislaus, with the empty title of king, recovered his possessions in Poland and obtained a conditional grant of Lorraine. This war produced several territorial changes in Italy, and was terminated by the treaty of Vienna, A. D. 1735.

The war of the Austrian succession broke out in 1740. Charles VI. in his will, called the pragmatic sanction, under the guaranty of several European

states, left his possessions to Maria Theresa, his eldest daughter. This, like almost all others, was a conflict of ambition ; and it ended, as most wars do, by sacrifices, compromises, and acquisitions, among the parties. Maria Theresa, however, was secured in the possessions of her father, with the exception of Silesia and Parma, the first of which was ceded to the king of Prussia and the last to a branch of the royal family of Spain. Hostilities were concluded in the year 1748, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

The descendants of Maria Theresa have exhibited no splendid abilities. Under their reigns, the House of Austria has lost its grandeur. From the chief of the Germanic empire, the present sovereign, Francis II. was compelled by Napoleon, to shrink into the character of the emperor of Austria. He abdicated the imperial crown, A. D. 1806 ; and was compelled to receive the law from the emperor of France, with whom he formed a close alliance and to whom he gave his daughter in marriage.

Austria, however, did not long remain in this degraded situation : she contributed, more than any other European power, to the fatal reverses which overwhelmed the emperor Napoleon in the year 1814. In this instance the spirit of royal legitimacy was too strong for parental feeling ; for although the same act that exiled Bonaparte to the island of Elba, deprived Maria Louisa, the daughter of the sovereign of Austria, of an imperial throne, he did not hesitate, but concurred in that lesser humiliation for the purpose of re-elevating his own authority in Italy and over the Germanic body. The confederation of the Rhine, which had been formed by Napoleon out of the states of the old Germanic confederacy, having been dissolved by the dissolution of

the imperial power of France, the Germanic confederation was reorganized in 1815 by the treaty of Vienna. Its present declared object is the maintenance of the external and internal safety of Germany, and of the independence and inviolability of the confederated states. The members of the confederation, as such, are equal with regard to their rights; and they are all equally engaged to maintain the act which constitutes their union. The affairs of this union are confided to a federative diet, in which all the members vote by their plenipotentiaries, either individually or collectively. Austria presides at the diet, and may be regarded as the head of the Germanic Body. Each state of the confederation has the right of making propositions, and the presiding state must bring them under deliberation within a definite time. The states of the confederation engage to defend, not only the whole of Germany, but each individual state of the union, in case it should be attacked, and they mutually guaranty to each other such of their possessions as are comprised in the union. They also engage not to make war against each other, on any pretext, nor to pursue their differences by force of arms, but to submit them to the diet, which is authorized to attempt a mediation by means of a commission. If this should not succeed, and a juridical sentence becomes necessary, recourse must be had to a well-organized *Austregal Court*, to the decision of which the contending parties are to submit without appeal.

If the rivers and mountains of the globe did not remain to guide our researches, the desolation occasioned by human ambition and the changes produced by political arrangements, from time to time, would preclude the possibility of tracing the successive

formation of human societies and kingdoms on the maps, which represent the surface of the world. Of the six principal duchies of Saxony, Bavaria, Franconia, Suabia, Upper and Lower Lorraine, into which Germany was originally divided, the lines are very faint. They have been succeeded by various states, laical and ecclesiastical, of which Austria is the principal.

Prussia, by the policy and courage of a few able monarchs, rose to a degree of splendor and power, that at once astonished and alarmed her neighbors. But as if her fate had been merely to exist for the purpose of forming a hero in the person of Frederick the Great, her lustre was suddenly eclipsed, and her sovereign laid prostrate at the feet of France. The chief of the Prussian royal family was Frederick of Hohenzollern of whom Rodolph of Hapsbourg was the uncle. The House of Hohenzollern was, in the first instance, of no higher dignity than that of Burgrave; it afterwards rose to electoral importance, and in 1701 it attained the kingly dignity under Frederick I. The reigning sovereign is Frederick William III. who lost a great part of his estates by the treaty of Tilsit, in the year 1807; but recovered them, with additions, by the treaty of Vienna, in 1815.

Saxony, which had been erected into a kingdom by Napoleon, retains that title; but has been reluctantly compelled to make great territorial sacrifices in favor of the king of Prussia, who, in virtue of the treaty of Vienna of 1815, is denominated Duke of Saxony.

Hanover, formerly an electorate, has, by the same treaty, been recognised as a kingdom, of which the king of Great Britain and Ireland is the sovereign.

The treaty of Vienna, moreover, guaranties the integrity of the Swiss cantons, adding to them the

Vallais, the territory of Geneva, and the principality of Neufchatel. The Helvetic confederation began A. D. 1808, and gradually increased until it formed, in 1814, thirteen cantons. The Swiss are a hardy, valiant race, inured to toil, fearless of danger, and intrepid in the cause of liberty. Although situated in the midst of mountains, and having scarcely any thing to tempt invasion, they have always been agitated by the commotions of their powerful neighbors, and have never failed to distinguish themselves by the most daring courage. Several passes lead from Switzerland into Italy, that theatre of so many bloody wars, which has been one cause of the Swiss being frequently involved in hostilities. Their soldiers were formerly in such high repute that they were solicited, by high pay, into the service of almost every military power on the continent of Europe. During the French revolutionary conflicts they have been most cruelly treated by the Austrians and the French; particularly by the latter, who deluged the country with blood. Finding, however, that the Swiss could only be effectually subdued by extermination, Napoleon entered into a compact with them, guaranteed to them a kind of independence, took great pains to conciliate their friendship and cause them to forget their misfortunes, and styled himself their mediator. The population of Switzerland is about 1,700,000 souls.

When the French armies experienced a reverse of fortune, the Swiss cantons opened a passage through their country to the allied troops which entered France in the year 1814. The allies assured the political independence of Switzerland, according to a convention of the 29th of December, 1813, which was recognized by the treaty of Vienna in 1815.

The constitution of Germany, which the emperor Napoleon overthrew, was a heterogeneous mass of provisions and regulations growing out of an adjustment of the rights and interests of a multitude of primary and petty sovereigns, and of treaties formed under the sanction of the most respectable monarchs of Europe. The fragments of the empire of Charlemagne were erected into Grand Duchies, whose dukes did not hesitate to assume the highest authority, and to administer the affairs of their territories by means of Margraves, Rhingraves and Landgraves, who were a kind of earls, that, according to their situations on the frontiers or marches, in the interior of the country, or on the Rhine, took this denomination. To counterbalance this ducal power, the emperors created provincial palatines, who, with regal commissions, and with the assistance of burgraves, in the principal towns, were enabled in a great degree to check the jurisdiction of the dukes, and to increase the imperial prerogative. To these we may add the clergy, who, from the sanctity of the clerical functions, or from the weakness or design of the emperors, obtained a prodigious influence in the body politic of Germany. In the German constitution may be plainly discerned the leading idea of the confederation of the North American states, the latter having improved the German constitutional codes by adopting the most liberal features of the English frame of government. The Emperor, like the President of the United States, had a dispensing power in the administration of justice, superintended the mint, nominated to offices, and convoked the General Diet of the States. This Diet, composed of the representatives of the several states of the empire, enacted laws of a general nature, had the power of impeachment, and, like

the congress, decided questions of peace or war. The individual German states, like those of the union, held a peculiar sovereignty, and administered law with respect to their local affairs without control.

If any person is disposed to investigate the rise, progress, decay, and regeneration, of the Germanic body more minutely, he may be amply gratified by consulting the particular histories of the Diets of Nuremburg and Metz, held A. D. 1356, when the ordinances of the Golden Bull were proclaimed; of the Diet of Worms, held in the year 1495, when the Imperial chamber was established for the settlement of disputes between the individual German states; of the Diet of Treves and Cologne, in 1512, by which Germany was divided into circles; of the Diet of Augsbourg in 1555, which gave a constitutional existence to the protestant religion in Germany; of the treaty of Westphalia, which regulated and strengthened the constitution of the empire; and also the histories of the treaties of Luneville, of Presburg, of Tilsit, the convention between Austria and France, which immediately preceded the family alliance between the houses of Lorraine and Bonaparte; and the treaty of Vienna, of the 9th of June, 1815.

C.

LETTER XXIII.

Formation of the Kingdoms of Modern Europe, after the fall of the Roman Empire—continued.

HOLLAND.

Holland, or the United Provinces of the Netherlands, grew into a political confederacy about the year 1579. Each province administered its local affairs with an absolute authority; but the States-General was vested with the supreme legislative power of the Union, which was formed of deputies sent from each of the states, and was clothed with power to make war and peace, levy taxes, and provide for the general welfare. The country, in the time of the Roman empire, was inhabited by the Frisii, the Batavi, and other warlike tribes, who, as occasion served, were in alliance or hostility with Rome. The name of Civilis, a Batavian chief, will be immortal, for his genius, policy, and courage, displayed in a bold but ineffectual effort to free his country and the neighboring nations from the Roman yoke. His fortunes and his character are described by Tacitus.

The Hollanders have been a patient and a laborious people, and by unexampled perseverance, made their country, (the surface of which is in many places below the level of the sea, which is fenced out by dykes) a theatre of immense wealth and population, the result of an industry that puts all comparison at defiance, unless a parallel may be drawn from a community of bees: Celebrated for their herring, cod, and whale fisheries; for their navigation, by which, at one time, they engrossed the

carrying trade of Europe ; for their possessions in the East Indies, and for their naval strength, which enabled them for many years to dispute the dominion of the seas with Great-Britain, and at one period to insult the proud metropolis of her English rival. Political faction has been the rock upon which the prosperity of the Hollanders has been wrecked. Accustomed to be governed by Stadtholders, or Princes of the states, they occasionally abolished that office ; and the whole republic was long convulsed by the conflicts of the party of the Stadtholders and of that of Louvestein. The house of Nassau has enjoyed the chief executive dignity of the commonwealth. This house boasts great antiquity, and some of its princes were men of admirable abilities, particularly William III. who succeeded to the British crown, and still retained in his hands a general superintending authority over the affairs of Holland. Ever since that period Great Britain had a prevailing influence in her political concerns, until the commencement of the French revolution. In the year 1795, the whole country was overrun by the French, and the Stadtholder was compelled to seek, for himself and his family, an asylum in England. The connexion of Holland with Great Britain under William III, and her association with France in 1795, have been the cause of her decay. The French government, treating her first as an independent power in the form of a republic, then erecting the country into a kingdom, under a prince of the house of Bonaparte, had completely succeeded in breaking down the spirit of the people, in absorbing their riches, and in the incorporation of the inhabitants into the French empire, under the name of Departments. The fate of Holland affords an awful admonition to weak states how they enter into asso-

ciations with powerful ones ; and warns a free people to confide for security in nothing but their own industry and valor. Louis, a brother of Napoleon, and for a while the phantom king of Holland, after the usurpations of the French, sunk into obscurity. Recent revolutions have again changed her destiny. Holland, the ancient United Provinces of the Netherlands, and the late Belgic Provinces, have, by the dismemberment of Napoleon's empire, been formed into the kingdom of the Netherlands, which is acknowledged by the monarchs of Europe in the last treaty of Vienna, as existing under the sovereignty of the prince of Orange Nassau.

DENMARK.

Denmark, in ancient times, was the country of the Teutones and the Cimbrians, and afterwards furnished those bands of hardy adventurers who invaded England, and laid waste the maritime parts of Europe. The government, in its origin, was an elective monarchy, and as tranquillity or intestine broils prevailed in Germany, was independent or dependent on that Empire. As Christianity spread in the north of the European continent, the sovereigns of Denmark were converted to the Gospel ; but, although they extended their possessions along the southern shores of the Baltic, none of them make any great figure in history, till about the year 1387, when the celebrated Margaret of Waldemar began to reign. By espousing the king of Norway she became his heir, and succeeded in causing herself to be chosen queen of Sweden. By her policy she extorted from the three kingdoms, in 1397, the treaty of Calmar, which contained an engagement for the perpetual union of the people of Sweden,

Norway and Denmark, under the same crown. The successors of Margaret were feeble or cruel princes, and Sweden, in 1523, was wrested from the crown of Denmark by the heroism of Gustavus Vasa. It is the house of Holstein that possesses the Danish throne. This house, branches of which reign in Russia and in Sweden, attained royal power A. D. 1448, by election, in the person of Christian I. Christian II. guilty of all sorts of excesses, was driven from his throne, became a fugitive and a prisoner, but finally died a penitent, aged 78 years, ten of which he reigned, nine he passed in exile, and twenty-seven as a captive. Christian III. to whom Christian II. was indebted for his liberation from a dungeon, is represented as an able prince, who established Lutheranism in Denmark, and under whose reign Norway was firmly united to his kingdom. In the year 1660 a very singular revolution occurred: the crown, at that period elective, was made hereditary in the posterity of Frederick III. This occurrence took place in consequence of the arrogance of the nobility. The clergy and the commonalty, depressed by the nobles, determined to rescue themselves from oppression by throwing their weight into the scale of the executive branch of the government. Accordingly, in an assembly of the three orders of the state, held at Copenhagen, the bishop and the burgomaster of that city, both popular characters, suddenly proposed to render the crown hereditary, and immediately, in the name of the classes which they represented, made a tender to that effect to the sovereign. The nobles, taken without warning, followed the example; and thus the world beheld the extraordinary spectacle of a whole people making a voluntary surrender of their liberties. The year 1772 is distinguished in Da-

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nish history by the misfortunes of Matilda, sister of George III. king of Great Britain, and wife of Christian VII. This unhappy woman had obtained a complete ascendancy over her husband, and, taking into her own hands the management of public business, had elevated to power persons that were odious to the people. This did not escape the notice of the queen dowager, who was mother-in-law of Christian VII. She did not fail to excite popular discontent against her rival Matilda and her favorite, whose name was Struenzee. Seizing a convenient moment, the queen dowager and her adherents extorted from the king, whose mind had been previously filled with jealousy, an order for the arrest of Matilda and her favorite. Struenzee, and a friend of his named Brandt, were beheaded, and the queen only escaped death by the interposition of the British ambassador at the court of Denmark.

The principal wars of the Danes have been with Sweden, if we except a contest of about five years duration against Austria, in the war of thirty years. They have been more distinguished in modern times by commercial than by military transactions; and, independently of their possessions in Europe, comprising Denmark proper, Holstein and Norway, they could at one period boast of colonies in Africa, Asia, and America. Of these, however, they were, for the most part, stripped by the British, during the war which commenced in the year 1803 between France and England. The policy of the Danes, during the wars of the French revolution, was pacific; and they did not relinquish it till compelled to take an active part in the conflict by their more powerful neighbors. Copenhagen, the Capital of Denmark, has been treated with much cruelty by the British. In the year 1801 they bom-

barded it with great slaughter, in order to compel the Danish government to relinquish certain principles of maritime law inimical to the commercial and naval interests of England. The Danes, after making a gallant defence, were obliged to submit, and sign a convention agreeable to the British ministry. In the year 1807, the English again appeared before Copenhagen in force, and, investing it also by land, obliged the Danes to deliver up the ships of war then in their possession. The alleged reason for this latter coercion, was the danger of the Danish navy's falling into the hands of the French to the detriment of Great Britain.

Denmark adhered to the French interest until the overthrow of Napoleon at Leipsic in 1813, when, menaced by the Swedish forces under prince Bernadotte, she sought for peace, and concluded a treaty with Great Britain and Sweden, to the latter of whom she ceded Norway in exchange for Swedish Pomerania. The British restored what they had conquered from the Danes; and the latter, having been subsidized by Great Britain, joined their troops to those of the allies against France.

SWEDEN.

The early history of Sweden, like that of all the northern German communities, is but faintly discernible through the night of time. That country is the ancient Scandinavia, the store-house of those swarms of Barbarians who, crossing the Baltic sea, spread terror and desolation wherever they advanced. The monarchy, like that of Denmark, was originally elective. By the union of Calmar, in the year 1397, Sweden became a mere tributary kingdom to Denmark. This Union, which was effected

by the abilities of Margaret of Waldemar, who was denominated the Semiramis of the North, was in the end productive of great inquietudes : After her death a struggle ensued between the Danes and the Swedes, for subjection on the one side, and for independence on the other. At length Christian II. of Denmark, a bloody and remorseless tyrant, in order to destroy every hope of freedom in the hearts of the people of Sweden, conceived the gigantic wickedness of butchering all the noble and powerful families of that kingdom. From this dire tragedy one gallant youth escaped ; and seeking shelter among the Dalecarlians, a race of hardy mountaineers, roused them to a sense of their degradation and to an act of vengeance. This youth was Gustavus Vasa, whose story has furnished a subject for the drama, and who, putting himself at the head of the peasantry of Dalecarlia, triumphantly repulsed the Danes, and for his valor and patriotism was rewarded with the crown. The royal authority continued in the house of Vasa until the abdication of Christiana in the year 1654, when the crown was transferred to the house of Deux-Ponts, of which the celebrated Charles XII. was a descendant. This prince, and Gustavus Adolphus, who was of the house of Vasa, were the most distinguished sovereigns of the Swedish monarchy. Both of them were addicted to war, and both are believed to have perished by assassination. The wars of Sweden have been, in general, with the Danes, the Germans, the Poles, and the Russians ; sometimes for liberty, often for revenge, but chiefly for extension of territory.

Sweden has been prolific in sovereigns of singular fortune. Gustavus Adolphus, perhaps, is the only one of her monarchs, who, besides Gustavus

Vasa, truly deserves the name of hero : his reign was a period of glory for the Swedes, who may boast, without blushing, of the battle of Leipsic, and of that of Lutzen, where the brave Adolphus fell in the year 1632. The heroism of Charles XII. has been regarded by many as a species of insanity ; and the reign of Eric XIV. the eldest son of Gustavus Vasa, who at one time aspired to the hand of queen Elizabeth of England, was a continued scene of profligacy and madness. A branch of the house of Holstein succeeded to that of Deux Ponts ; of this branch Gustavus III. who was assassinated in 1792, was the most respectable sovereign : His efforts to maintain the royal authority, although prosperous in the first instance, eventually cost him his life. He fell by the hand of an assassin named Ankerstrom. His successor, Gustavus IV. after a long struggle against France, and impoverishing Sweden by the war in which he embarked, was dethroned on the 14th of March 1809. He first sought an asylum in Great Britain, but afterwards returned to the continent, and resided for some time as a private gentleman in Switzerland, under the name of Count Gottorp. On his being driven out of the kingdom, the duke of Sudermania, in May, of the same year, was made king under the title of Charles XIII. The duke was uncle to Gustavus IV. and was regent during the minority of the exiled monarch, who came to the regal dignity at the age of fourteen. The sequel of this affair exposes the interference of France in the transaction. Marshal Bernadotte, prince of Ponte-Corvo, a distinguished French general, passed over to Sweden, abjured the Roman Catholic creed, and was declared heir-apparent to the Swedish crown. Charles XIII. having died, Bernadotte is now king of Sweden and Norway, the latter country having

been wrested from Denmark, to reward the new king for his services, whilst crown-prince of Sweden, to the allied powers against Napoleon, to whose downfall he ably contributed. The nominal equivalent to Denmark for Norway, was Swedish Pomerania. Of all the marshals and princes created by Bonaparte, Charles John Bernadotte is the only one who has had the good fortune to survive the overthrow of the emperor of the French with an increased authority. He is acknowledged as a legitimate sovereign by the old monarchical races of Europe, who have hitherto supported him against the claims of the house of Gustavus the IVth. which is represented as not having entirely relinquished the hope of obtaining possession of the crown.

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LETTER XXIV.

*Formation of the Kingdoms of Modern Europe,
after the fall of the Roman Empire.*

RUSSIA.

The fables of history, as well as those of biography, owe their origin to the inattention of mankind. The early stages of a nation's progress to grandeur, and the first actions of a great man, are, in general, too obscure and insignificant to attract notice. It is not until both the one and the other have performed some distinguished deed, or until, from their power, their influence begins to be felt in the society of nations or of men, that the human mind is drawn to a

serious consideration of their birth and condition. Imagination must then supply what authentic records do not furnish, and fancy, volatile and inventive, frequently creates incidents which reason will not sanction. Such, emphatically, is the case with Russian history, which is made to commence, by men of the most diligent research, about the middle of the ninth century. One Rurick, who governed a wide population on the shores of the Baltic, either invited by the people of Novorogod, or impelled by ambition, led thither an army, and finally established himself in the country. The successors of this chieftian inherited a divided empire, which in the end fell a prey to the Tartars, who governed it from the thirteenth to the middle of the fifteenth century, until Ivan Wasieliwitz freed his inheritance from ignominious servitude. On the death of Ivan II. confusion was produced in the government, and order was not restored until the family of Romanoff was called to the throne. From this family Peter the Great descended; and he is very justly regarded as the founder of the present Russian empire. The empress Elizabeth was the last sovereign of the house of Romanoff: She was followed by Peter III. of the Holstein family, who was deposed and put to death at the instigation, and by the paramours, of his wife Catharine II. who succeeded him on the throne. Catharine reigned thirty-four years; and in the midst of the most execrable voluptuousness, governed Russia with masculine ability, and filled Europe with the fame of her policy and the renown of her arms. Those who are desirous of gaining particular knowledge of the institutions of this empire, are advised to study the transactions of the government of this princess, and those of the reign of Peter the Great. Paul I. was the

successor of Catharine II. He was an eccentric man, and too much under the influence of a sublimated imagination. During his sovereignty the Russians astonished the world by their warlike efforts, and immortalized their valor under the conduct of Suwarrow, who had also distinguished himself in the time of Catharine. The great military exertions of Paul, however, exhausted the resources of the empire so much, that he rendered himself unpopular; and a combination having been entered into among the leading men of the court, he was privately assassinated A. D. 1801. The faction which put Paul to death immediately united in proclaiming the present incumbent of the throne, Alexander Paulowitz, emperor of all the Russias. This prince, who is represented as humane, and naturally inclined to peace, has been engaged in several wars with France, in conjunction with Austria or Prussia, or both. The two most memorable of these were those of 1806-7 and 1812. That of 1806-7 was terminated by the treaty of Tilsit on the 9th of July of the former year. By this treaty Prussia was reduced to a third rate power, and Napoleon's political association, known by the name of the confederation of the Rhine, was extended to a part of Poland. This confederacy, embracing, in effect, the ideas of Henry IV. of France, placed the French empire at the head of an armed league, composed of the principal states of Europe; and promised, in time, to realize the expression of Frederick the Great of Prussia, who asserted, that if he were king of France there should not be a cannon fired on the European continent without his consent. The war of 1812, however, put an end to those splendid prospects. Napoleon, who invaded the Russian empire at the head of four hundred thousand warriors, and

seized upon Moscow after having beaten and overturned every thing in his way thither, found in the severity of that northern climate an enemy which no human force could resist. Compelled to retreat for want of supplies, and incessantly harassed by an exasperated population, it was in vain that the French battalions sustained their former glory in every combat. Under the circumstances in which they were placed, victory led to the same result as defeat; and perishing by thousands in the surrounding snows, the remnant of their fugitive and shattered columns, deserted by their Prussian allies, regained the frontiers of the French empire in a condition strangely contrasted with the bright visions with which the campaign had been commenced. The Russians, in 1813 and 1814, followed up their blows; and all Germany, smarting under the rod of Napoleon, rose against him in a mass, and, seconded by Spain and aided by the delinquency of Italy, hurled him from his throne. By the treaty of Vienna in 1815, the emperor Alexander gained an accession of territory in Poland, which he has erected into a kingdom. He has, also, in conjunction with the sovereign of Austria, the kings of Prussia and France, and other monarchs of the continent of Europe, formed a *Holy League*; which is a treaty of crowned heads to arrest the progress of political reformation.

The principal wars in which the true interests of Russia have been most consulted, are those with the Turks. Catharine II. whilst she was not inattentive to European politics, pushed her conquests, more than any other Russian sovereign, on the side of the Black Sea, and in the direction of Asiatic Turkey. The most splendid achievement of her reign was, perhaps, the acquisition of the Crimea, the ancient

Taurica Chersonesus, the peaceable possession of which was secured to her in 1791, by the Turks, who ceded the fortress of Oczakow. It was in the transactions of the Crimea, that Potemkin, the favorite of Catharine, and a very extraordinary man, distinguished himself. The history of his life is equally interesting to the philosopher, the statesman, and the soldier.

It would be unpardonable to omit in this letter, all notice of Catharine I. who, by the graces of her person and the force of her understanding, rose to the imperial dignity. A peasant by birth, and exposed in her early years to the caprices and miseries of so humble a fortune, in the course of her singular adventures she attracted the regard of Peter the Great, and gaining an ascendancy over him by the wisdom of her counsel and the excellence of her judgment, he married her, and caused her to be solemnly crowned empress of Russia. At the death of her husband she ascended the throne, guided and supported by the abilities and the influence of a favorite whose name was Menzikoff. History almost takes the complexion of Romance in reciting the tale of this wonderful woman. In infancy an object of charity, at fourteen years married to a Swedish dragoon, from whom she was immediately separated never more to meet, next a prisoner of war, then the mistress of general Bauer, of Menzikoff, and of Peter the Great, who eventually espoused her, the incidents of her life are not exceeded in singularity by those of the most extravagantly drawn heroine of chivalry. During her reign Menzikoff flourished, the chief of her cabinet and the absolute lord of the state. But, corrupted by power and proudly arrogant, the death of Catharine was the signal for his downfall. He was banished to Siberia, and died

there in 1729. Under the reign of the empress Anne, two extraordinary men arose to chequer, by the strange vicissitudes of their lives, the scene of Russian transactions. These personages were Biron and Munich, the first a Courlander, raised by royal bounty to be duke of that duchy ; and the latter a Danish military adventurer of considerable merit, who had been distinguished by the partiality of the sovereigns of Russia. Biron was the favorite of Anne, and governed the nation with imperial sway ; but he sunk beneath the genius of Munich, who occasioned him to be banished ; a sentence which was subsequently inflicted on Munich himself. What is most curious in the history of these two individuals, is the circumstance of their recall from Siberia, and their meeting in their old age at St. Petersburg, the theatre of their former intrigues, and from which they had been absent so many years.

Russia embraces in her immense expansion a territory that nearly touches America in a north eastern direction, bounds on China, sweeps over the bosom of Asia, through the Caspian and the Black Seas, in a northwestern direction, to the shores of the Baltic, and the Gulph of Finland. This large tract of country has been brought under Russian domination by gradual accretions under the two Ivans, who drove out the Tartars, under the house of Romanoff, particularly Alexis Romanoff and Peter the Great, his son, and under Catharine II.

It is computed that Russia occupies the twenty-eighth part of the entire surface of the globe, and the ninth part of the solid earth. Over this vast space are spread forty millions of souls, two millions five hundred thousand of whom are supposed to inhabit Asiatic Russia. But this great population comprehends people of almost every description ;

various Tartar hordes, tribes of Cossacks, and persons of German origin. In the government of such a discordant mass, the maxims of state must necessarily be diversified: Accordingly, the emperor of Russia adapts his policy and his plans to the actual condition of his subjects, and from local causes is frequently obliged to act upon the principles which a complete state of civilization, in every part of his empire, would render reprehensible. In truth, society as well as law, in Russia, is still in an elementary state; but if that country should ever arrive at the high degree of improvement of which it is susceptible, so that all its resources are brought into action, the Russians, in a military point of view, might become the masters of the earth. It is not, however, likely, that, under a dense population, a single sovereign would enjoy their present extent of territory; nor can it be reasonably presumed that in future times the inhabitants of the shores of Behring's straits will submit to the rule of a prince who holds his court on the banks of the Neva.

Russia is divided into about fifty local governments, the first of which is that of Moscow. The city of that name was the capital of the empire before St. Petersburg was built; it is enclosed by a rampart of twenty-six miles in circumference, contains about 300,000 souls, and is supposed to be the largest city of Russia. The sovereigns of the nation have, in general, been crowned there. It was burnt by its governor, Rostopchin, at the time Napoleon entered it; but has been since rebuilt.

By the first partition of Poland, in 1772, Catharine II. acquired 1,226,000 subjects; by a second partition, in 1793, she acquired 3,750,000: and by a final partition in 1795, 1,500,000 more. Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, originally projected this

division in the year 1772, in conjunction with the empress of Russia and the emperor of Germany. The dissensions of the Poles, in the choice of their kings, who were elective, furnished a pretext for foreign interference; and the spirit of party among the nobles, prevailing over every other consideration, Poland was for a time blotted out of the map of Europe. General Kosciusko, in the year 1794, made a courageous stand, at the head of a Polish army, in defence of the liberties of his country; but the Russians were victorious, and signalized the triumph of injustice by the most sanguinary atrocities. The brave Kosciusko survived the freedom of Poland; and after wandering for some time from place to place, finally took up his residence near Paris. He is now dead. Napoleon, in his campaign of 1807, against the Russians, made use of the popularity of Kosciusko with his countrymen, and induced the old general to address the Poles in a very energetic manner, inviting them to unite with the emperor of the French in order to effect the emancipation of Poland. All that Napoleon did for the country, notwithstanding his promises, was to incorporate the Poles into his armies, and to erect Warsaw into a duchy, more as a military post to hold the Russians in check, than as a mark of his friendliness to Polish independence. Mr. Campbell, the Scotch poet, has pathetically described, in his *Pleasures of Hope*, the fall of Poland. The duchy of Warsaw having been ceded to Russia by the last treaty of Vienna, the emperor Alexander has given the Poles a separate constitution, which is regal, and himself the king. This kingdom has been irrevocably united, by its new master, to the Russian empire.

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LETTER XXV.

ASIA, including Turkey, Arabia, Persia, India and the Tartaries.

Asia is a country of all others the most interesting to a Christian people. It is in that quarter of the world, which is larger than Europe and Africa, that the race of man is supposed to have originated, and where Christ is known to have been born and crucified. Of this portion of the globe, the empire of the Turks is the most contiguous to Europe. The power of their chief bestrides, like a Colossus, the ancient Hellespont, (now called the strait of Gallipoli, which is defended by the Dardanelles,) and enforces the tenets of Mahomet where the cross was once displayed with imperial magnificence. But the crescent is waning to obscurity; and the princes of Christendom, instigated by ambitious as well as by religious motives, threaten to drive back these infidels to the land of their ancestors.

The Turks were originally a Scythian horde, residing in the vicinity of Mount Imaus, about the centre of Asia. Bursting from the chains of servitude in which they were held by a neighboring power, they spread themselves over the plains of Scythia, drove before them, or subdued, the hordes who had previously inhabited the country, and established an extensive empire, which, in time, was broken and dismembered. The hordes of the west, freed from their sway, precipitated themselves upon Europe, where their descendants compose a part of the states at present in existence. The eastern hordes threw themselves into Persia, became united with the Saracens in that part of Asia, whom they even-

tually subjugated, after imbibing from them the doctrines of Mahomet. About the eleventh century the Turkish chieftains took the name of Sultan, and proclaimed themselves lieutenants of the caliphs of Bagdad, which was the ancient Babylon, seated on the Tigris, and then the seat of the Saracen empire. In the thirteenth century the Turks established a new sovereignty on the ruins of the Saracens, and parcelled out their kingdom into petty seignories, the lords of which, as they rose to supremacy, instituted dynasties, whose names only tended to gratify pride and confuse history. Othman, an emir or prince of a district in Asia Minor, taking advantage of the times in which he lived and the death of his sovereign, seized upon a portion of the country in his own right, and attracted by his valor and wisdom new troops of Turks to aid him. These, viewing in him the founder of a rising kingdom, assumed the name Ottomans in honor of their leader. Othman died A. D. 1326. Bursa, or Prusa, in the first instance, was the capital of his empire. This city, celebrated for its fountains and the elegance of its mosques, or Mahometan churches, stands at the foot of Mount Olympus, only ninety-nine miles south of Constantinople. Orchan, who succeeded Othman, carried his arms into Europe, and espoused the daughter of the emperor of Constantinople. Orchan was followed by Amurath I. a warlike prince, who transferred the seat of his empire to Adrianople, and instituted the military order of the Janizaries. Bajazet was the successor of Amurath, and mounted the throne in 1389. He was restless and ambitious, and, in consequence of the rapid success of his arms, was called the Thunderbolt. He subjugated Thessaly, Macedonia and Bulgaria, and had the honor of obtaining a great victory at Nicopolis, near the Da-

nube, in 1396, over a Christian army under Sigismund, king of Hungary. But in the year 1402, he was totally defeated on the plains of Angora, by the celebrated Timur, or Tamerlane. Some writers affirm that Timur exposed him to public view in an iron cage, whilst others assert that the victor treated him with great liberality. This disaster was in some measure retrieved by Mahomet I. Amurath II. obtained the crown in 1422. He defeated the Hungarians at Varna with great slaughter, and was successful in almost all his warlike enterprizes, except in that against George Castriot, the celebrated Scanderbeg, king of Albania, who freed himself from the tyranny of the Othmans, maintained the rights of his family, and obliged Amurath to conclude peace with him on honorable and advantageous terms. In the year 1453 Mahomet II. the most illustrious of the Ottoman emperors, took Constantinople by assault, and made it the capital of the Turkish empire. In 1520 Soliman II. surnamed the magnificent, succeeded his father Solim I. He made alarming inroads into Europe: In 1521 he took Belgrade; in the next year Rhodes; in 1524 he captured Breda, and laid siege to Vienna; but he was compelled to retire from the latter place with the loss of 80,000 men. The first peace between Turkey and France took place under this prince with Francis I. Vienna was besieged a second time by the Turks in 1683, under Mahomet IV. but was relieved by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Mustapha IV. occupies the throne at present, elevated to that dignity by the Janizaries, who had previously dethroned Selim III.

The possessions of the Turks in Europe are Bosnia, Servia, Albania, Morea, Greece, Macedonia, Bulgaria, Romelia, Wallachia, and Moldavia.

As wars are carried on, from time to time, between them and the Russians, and peace, with them, is in general, but loosely observed, it is impossible precisely to define the present extent or number of the Turkish provinces on the European side of Marmora and the Black Sea. On the Asiatic side they possess the finest countries, once held by the Romans. These are the several districts of Asia Minor, and Syria, Palestine, &c. The Grand Seignor can also boast considerable authority and influence in Arabia. His authority over Egypt, in Africa, is very precarious.

The Koran is both Bible and law to the Moslems. The Elima, or learned, the highest order in the empire, are its interpreters. At the head of the Elima is the Mufti, or Shaikh-alislam, whose decrees are called fatwas. Europe and Asia have each a Cadilesker, or military judge, appointed annually. The next in dignity is the Istombul Effendi, or judge of Constantinople. In the courts of other principal cities Mulas preside; and in those of less note justice is administered or sold by a Cadi. At Bursa, Adrianople, and Constantinople, there are universities, for the instruction of those who are devoted to the study of religion, or of civil and religious jurisprudence. The office of professor is called Madaris. The ecclesiastical order consists of the Shaikh, who preaches every Friday in the mosques; of the Khatib, who recites the Khatba, attesting the unity of God and the prophetic character of Mahomet; of the Imam, who performs a certain service five times a day; and of the Muezzin, who, from the top of the Minarets, or towers, summons the Moslems to prayers.

The Grand Vizier is the chief executive officer of the state, and formerly presided in the Divan, which

was composed of six councillors, afterwards increased to twelve. The Sultan, or Grand Seigneur, frequently attends the deliberations of this body in person. A Pacha of three tails is the supreme delegated governor of a province. It is believed that this distinction arises out of the original constitution of the Turkish dignities, designated by the number of cavalry the officer commands. If the number be double that of a common Munsub, or dignity, the commander is a Pacha of two tails; if triple, he is a Pacha of three tails. A Pachalic is divided into military districts called Sangiacs, or Standards. The Janizaries, Spahis, Yaims, Timariots, (a kind of vassals holding lands or other benefices in virtue of military service) are obliged, in case of war, to unite under a commander called Sangiac bey, and wait the orders of the Pacha.

The law of the Turks permits polygamy, which, however, in strictness, is confined to four wives. They are a people fond of indolence, moderate in their eating; and generally charitable to strangers. They believe in one God, and consider Mahomet as his principal prophet. Constantinople is still the capital of the empire.

ARABIA has been divided into three parts: 1. Arabia Petrea; 2. Arabia Deserta; and, 3. Arabia Felix. Each of these denominations is descriptive of the portion of the country to which it appertains. The smallest of the three divisions is Arabia Petrea, which is mountainous and barren, and differs very little from Arabia Deserta, which, in general, is a sterile sand. Arabia Felix is the most fertile, and produces frankincense, myrrh, balm of Gilead, and the best of coffee, which is of superior quality in the vicinity of Mocha. The Arabians of the desert are at the same time herdsmen and plunderers; they

live in tents, and remove from place to place, for the sake of pasture and pillage. The caravans which travel from Bassora to Aleppo, and from Egypt to Mecca, frequently feel the effects of the predatory disposition of these wandering tribes.

Arabia is chiefly distinguished in history by commerce and religion. Mahomet attracted the inhabitants from the pastoral life, to which, from the earliest times, they had been accustomed ; and, as his doctrines were propagated by the sword, his proselytes, conquering Persia and Egypt, led themselves into temptations which the gains of trade in those countries held forth. They carried on commerce with India in its usual channel from the Persian gulph, and advancing beyond the boundaries of ancient navigation, brought many of the most precious commodities of the East directly from the countries which produced them. In order to engross all the profits arising from the sale of them, Bassora was founded, a few years after the conquest of Persia, by the Caliph Omar, on the western banks of the great stream formed by the junction of the Euphrates and the Tigris. Goods imported from India were conveyed from this new city into all the western parts of Asia. Mahomet himself, in his religious institutions, had an eye to traffic. He enjoined on all his followers to visit once in their lifetime the Caabaa, or square building in the temple of Mecca, the immemorial object of veneration among his countrymen, not only on account of its having been chosen (according to their tradition) to be the residence of man at his creation, but because it was the first spot on the earth that was consecrated to the worship of God. In order to preserve continually upon their minds a sense of obligation to perform this duty, he directed, that in all the multiplied acts

of devotion, which his religion prescribes, true believers should always turn their faces towards that holy place. In obedience to this injunction, the votaries of the prophet advance to Mecca from the shores of the Atlantic on the one hand, and from the most remote regions of the East, on the other. Mecca is thus crowded, not only with zealous devotees, but with opulent merchants. By this means a fair for trade is established, the greatest, perhaps, on the face of the earth. Mercantile transactions are carried on in it to an immense value, of which the despatch, the silence, the mutual confidence and good faith in conducting them, are the most unequivocal proof. The muslins and chintzes of Bengal and the Deccan, the shawls of Cachemere, the pepper of Malabar, the diamonds of Golconda, the cinnamon of Ceylon, the nutmegs, cloves and mace of the Moluccas, and an immense number of other Indian commodities, form the articles of merchandize at these fairs of Mecca.

Mahomet, who gave at the same time a religious and a commercial bias to the Arabians, was born at Mecca, A. D. 571. He was of the tribe of Koreish, and his family was noble. His circumstances, nevertheless, were mean. In his infancy his father died, and the care of him devolved upon his uncle Abu Talob, who was a merchant, and employed Mahomet until he became twenty-five years of age, as a driver of Camels into Syria. At the age of twenty-eight, he espoused Cadija, the wealthy widow of a trader; and thus becoming one of the richest men of Mecca, he aspired to the sovereignty of it. Political ambition excited his genius; and he finally framed, and successfully propagated, one of the grossest impostures that the world ever witnessed. Ten years after his marriage with Cadija,

he put on the appearance of extraordinary sanctity, retired every morning to a solitary cave in the vicinity of Mecca, and continued the whole day in prayer and meditation. In his fortieth year, he proclaimed himself a prophet and the apostle of God; and four years afterwards, began to oppose the Paganism of his countrymen, and would have fallen a sacrifice to their resentment, if he had not been protected by the powerful influence of his uncle. Mahomet invented a system of divinity, which he pretended had been revealed to him by the Deity, in visions, or through the medium of the Angel Gabriel. This system he embodied in the Koran, a work manifestly selected from the Bible, the works of the christian fathers, and such writings and precepts as were most in vogue among the Jews. Impostors always deal in mystery; and the cunning of Mahomet has, in that respect, been almost an overmatch for the prying curiosity of his enemies, who knowing his ignorance of letters, were determined to ascertain by whose assistance this new prophet had been enabled to compile a work of so much purity of style as the Koran. It was at length, however, ascertained, that it was the performance of Abdia Ben Salem, a Persian Jew, and of Sergius, a monk of the sect of Nestorians. The ingenuity of Mahomet, notwithstanding, furnished many curious fables for the Koran; and he proved himself a match for the puzzling questions put to him by his opponents. They demanded of him a miracle; but he cut that matter short, by alleging, that God had sent Moses and Jesus with miracles, and yet men would not be obedient to his word; and that, therefore, he now had sent him, in the last place, without miracles to force them by the power of the sword to do his will. And pursuant to this subtilty, he

commanded his disciples to desist from argument and to fight for their doctrines. On the death of Cadija, he married three wives, and in the twelfth year of his mission, he gave out that he had been favored with a journey to Heaven, attended by the Angel Gabriel. The incredible falsehoods which he propagated on this occasion, lost him many friends, and he was compelled to fly from Mecca to Medina; which flight is called Hegira, and is the period from which the Mahometans reckon their years. It takes its beginning from the 16th of July, A. D. 622. He now erected his standard and armed his followers, and commenced expeditions against the trading caravans between Mecca and Syria, and thereby acquired considerable wealth. In 624, he made war on those Arab tribes who professed the Jewish religion. In the same year, he was defeated and dangerously wounded, which staggered the faith of many of his proselytes. He then invented the notion of *fate*, and asserted, that all Musselmen who die in battle, go immediately to Paradise. He afterwards made a truce with his enemies, which he subsequently broke, got possession of Mecca, and in 631 his religion and empire were established throughout all Arabia. He died in that year, of poison, which had been given to him, three years before, by an Arabian girl in the City of Caibar. The poison was administered on a shoulder of mutton, which Mahomet tasting, but not liking, spit out. He survived for the time, yet it finally killed him. The girl being asked why she did it, answered, "that she had a mind to try whether he was a true prophet; for, if he was, he certainly would know that the meat was poisoned; and if he was not, it would be a good thing to get rid of so wicked a tyrant." The impostor was buried at Medina.

The Koran contains some fine moral sentences ; but Mahomet was a voluptuary, and he made his paradise to consist in carnal delights. Those that die believers, he tells them, are to enter into pleasant gardens, where rivers and fountains perpetually flow, and there be attended by beautiful women. Whatever could excite the sensual appetites of the Arabians, was held out by way of inducement ; and whatever could inspire horror, such as the drinking of boiling and stinking water, the breathing exceedingly hot winds, was denounced in terror to unbelievers. He is thought to have deduced his maxims from the temperament of his own constitution. He was addicted to women, and he, therefore, made that one of the circumstances of supreme felicity : Wine did not agree with him, and hence his followers are forbidden to use it.

PERSIA has always enjoyed a considerable name in history ; but, like other nations, she has experienced great vicissitudes of fortune. The Persians succeeded to the power of the Medes and Babylonians, and grew in splendor till they threatened, under Xerxes, (who is said to have invaded Greece with two millions of men,) to inundate Europe. The Greeks were avenged for this insult by the triumphs of Alexander the Great. Seleucus Nicator, one of Alexander's Captains, usurped, and his successors lost, the Macedonian command over the East. About the same time that they resigned to the Romans the country on this side of Mount Taurus, they were driven from all the provinces of Upper Asia by the Parthians. The power of the Parthians was, however, in turn, subverted by Andohir, or Artaxerxes, the founder of a new dynasty, which, under the name of Sassanides, governed Persia till the invasion of the Arabs. This occurred A. D. 226. Ar-

taxerxes raised the Persian monarchy to great grandeur ; reformed the Magian religion, and by establishing the authority of the priesthood, secured his own power. Zoroaster was the prophet and philosopher of the Persians, and the Zendavesta the written guide of their faith. The doctrines of that ancient preceptor are singular, chiefly for the fundamental article of his system, which attempts to reconcile moral and physical evil with the attributes of a beneficent Creator and Governor of the world : The first and original Being, is denominated by Zoroaster *Time without Bounds* : Either from the blind or the intelligent operation of this Infinite Time, the two secondary, but active, principles of the universe were from all eternity produced, Ormusd and Ahriman, each of them possessed of the powers of creation, but each disposed, by his invariable nature, to exercise them with different designs. The malice of Ahriman has long since pierced *Ormusd's egg*, or, in other words, has violated the harmony of his works. Since that fatal irruption, the most minute articles of good and evil are mingled and agitated together ; the rankest poisons spring up amidst the most salutary plants ; deluges, earthquakes, and conflagrations, attest the conflict of nature, and the little world of man is perfectly shaken by vice and misfortune. The Persians sacrificed on the highest mountains, and their hymns and prayers were uttered in the open air.

The code of laws instituted by Artaxerxes, was respected as the ground work of the civil and religious policy of the Persians, till the last periods of the monarchy. Successive revolutions have introduced new laws and a new religion. They are now chiefly Mahometans of the sect of Ali, who was the cousin and son-in-law of Mahomet, and being ex-

cluded from the Caliphate by Omar and Othman, he broached certain tenets of his own, and raised a party to himself.

The Persians, whilst governed by their native Princes, never carried on any trade by sea with India, but they were supplied with the elegant manufactures of that part of Asia by land-carriage. The commodities destined for the supply of the Northern provinces of Persia, were transported on Camels from the Banks of the Indus to those of the Oxus, down the stream of which they were carried to the Caspian Sea, and distributed, partly by land carriage and partly by navigable rivers, through the different countries bounded on the one hand by the Caspian and on the other by the Euxine Sea. The commodities of India, intended for the southern and interior provinces, proceeded by land from the Caspian to some of the great rivers, by which they were circulated through every part of the country. After the overthrow of the empire of the Parthians, all the considerable ports of India were frequented by traders from Persia, who conveyed the merchandise which they procured in exchange for the productions of their own country, up the Persian Gulph, and, by means of the great rivers Euphrates and Tigris, distributed them through every province of their empire. They supplanted the merchants of the Arabian Gulph in all the marts of India to which silk was brought by sea from China, where it is supposed to have been originally known. Monopolizing this article of trade, the Persians raised the price of it so high, that two monks, about the year 551, brought the eggs of the silk worm from China in a hollow cane, and with them, the mystery of the wonderful manufacture. These eggs were hatched by the heat of a dung-hill, fed with the leaves of a

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wild mulberry tree, and being propagated through Europe, cheapened the commodity and furnished a new object for industry.

Persia, in the northern and eastern parts, is mountainous and cold; in the middle and south-eastern parts it is sandy and desert; in the southern and western, level and extremely fertile, though for several months very hot. The productions of the country are various and valuable: Among them are dates, pistachio nuts, and poppies that yield the finest opium. There are extensive plantations of trees for silk worms; and large flocks of sheep and goats. The camels, horses, mules, asses, oxen and buffaloes, are the best of their kind. The principal manufactures are satins, tabbies, taffetas, brocades, gold tissues, gold velvets, calicoes, and camlets.

For nearly a century past, Persia has been desolated by rival competitors for the sovereignty. The usurper Nadir Shah was assassinated in 1747, when Ahmed Abdallah, one of his generals, founded the kingdom of Candahar, annexing to it the provinces of Korasan and Segestan, in the eastern part of Persia, together with the provinces of Hindoostan Proper, west of the Indus, that had been ceded by the Great Mogul, in 1737, to Nadir Shah. Another of Nadir's officers, named Kerim-Kahn, obtained the sovereignty of all the southern provinces. He transferred the seat of government from Ispahan to Schiras. In 1779 he died, when new pretenders to the throne sprung up, harassing the people and devastating the country. The English have taken great pains to cultivate the friendship of the Persians, with a view to the greater security of the British possessions in India; whilst the French seek to inspire them with a jealousy of the growing power of

the English in the East, in order to embarrass the government of Great Britain in that quarter.

INDIA is a country, whose inhabitants are supposed to have been the earliest civilized people on the globe. The whole body of the community in that part of Asia were divided originally into four orders or *casts*. The first was the most sacred, and studied the principles of religion ; were destined to perform its functions, and cultivate the sciences : the second was entrusted with the government and defence of the state : the third was composed of husbandmen and merchants ; and the fourth of artisans, laborers and servants. None of these can ever quit his own cast, or be admitted into another. The members of each cast adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers : from generation to generation the same families have followed, and continue to follow, one uniform line of life. To this is ascribable the high degree of perfection observable in Indian manufactures. The sovereign is considered as the sole universal proprietor of all the land in his dominions, and from him is derived every species of tenure by which his subjects can hold it. The Hindoo code of laws that prevailed in India contains the jurisprudence of an enlightened and commercial people. Their lawyers are called Pundits. Their houses for religious exercises are denominated Pagodas, are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the most exquisite works of painting and sculpture which the artists highest in estimation among them were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their religion are pompous and splendid. The Brahmins are the ministers of religion ; these take their name from Brama, the founder of their faith, and author of their bible, called Vedam ; they have a regular

hierarchy and gradation of ranks, and are thereby enabled to preserve a more absolute dominion over the minds of the people. The conquests both of the Mahomedans and Europeans have had considerable effect upon the manners and customs of the natives. It is doubtful whether the seclusion of their women is of native or Mahomedan origin. Some of the Hindoos in the town of Calcutta have so far departed from their former customs that they drive about in English chariots, sit upon chairs, and furnish their houses with mirrors. The grand source of Indian literature, the parent of almost every dialect from the Persian gulph to the China seas, is the Sanskreet, a language of the most venerable and unfathomable antiquity.

The Egyptians and Phenicians, the most ancient navigators mentioned in history, were the first people of the west who opened a communication by sea with India. The first establishment of any foreign power there is supposed to be that of the Persians, under Darius, the son of Hystaspes. For many centuries Alexandria was the chief seat of trade with it, and it has been conjectured that it was one grand object with Alexander the Great, in order to promote his political views, to open to Asia and Europe in general more eligible routes for commerce with that flourishing country. Several attempts were made, subsequently to the expedition of Alexander, by princes of Asia, to make conquests in India; but none of them proved very successful. From about one hundred years before the Christian era till the close of the fifteenth century, when the Portuguese, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, opened a new communication with the East, no European power acquired territory or fixed its dominions there. Intercourse, nevertheless, was kept up; and

Indian manufactures have uniformly been in great demand in all countries where navigation or commerce have been objects of pursuit.

In the year 1497, under the reign of king Immanuel the Great, of Portugal, Vasco di Gama, after a navigation of thirteen months, arrived at Calicut, on the coast of Malabar. He scarcely took time to view the country; and was followed, in a second voyage, by Alvarez Cabral, who laid the foundation of Portuguese glory. In a third expedition Albuquerque established the power of Portugal there. The decay of her power, however, was as rapid as its growth. The Dutch drove the conquerors from almost all their newly acquired possessions; and in our day they only preserve in that quarter of the globe Macao, upon the coast of China, a part of the island of Timor, Goa, and Diu, and some other small establishments on the Malabar coast.

The first expedition of the Dutch to India, was under Cornelius Houtman, in the year 1595. The second voyage was undertaken by Van Neek, in 1598; he met with considerable success, and returned laden with riches. On his return the India company of Holland was formed, which sent out to those parts admiral Warwick, with a proper equipment; and he is considered the founder of the Dutch power in Asia. They were very successful in forming establishments on the Islands of the Indian seas. Batavia, in the island of Java, is the capital of all the possessions of the Hollanders in India. They are the only Europeans who have been permitted to trade at Japan. But their glory and their power in that quarter have been obscured by the English.

The conflicts of the Portuguese and the Dutch in India, at the commencement of the seventeenth century, attracted the attention of Europe, and drew thither the English, in order to secure a part of the spoils. Their present dominion over the best part of Indostan attests the success of their arms. They have not, at this time, a European competitor, and draw annually from thence to Great Britain immense wealth.

Of the various attempts of the English, individually, to open a trade thither, none proved successful till queen Elizabeth, by a charter, dated December 31, A. D. 1600, established the first incorporated company by the name of the *London East India Company*. The original shares were fifty pounds sterling each, and the capital was under four hundred thousand pounds. The shareholders, after considerable changes, were subsequently designated by the name of "*United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies.*" By degrees this body has become the richest and most powerful corporation that ever existed, and has for a long time enjoyed a controlling influence in the British government.

In the reign of Louis XIV. the French minister Colbert endeavoured to secure some of the profits of East Indian commerce to his countrymen; but although they obtained a footing in Bengal, and on the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar, and maintained severe conflicts with the British for superiority, they have never been able to fix an advantageous establishment in the country.

In 1618 the Danes made a settlement on the Coromandel coast, called Tranquebar; and towards the close of the sixteenth century the Spaniards settled

themselves at the Philippine Islands, the only possessions which they have in Asia.

India, on this side of the Ganges, has been called the Mogul empire, from the name of the Tartars who subjugated it; and it is also denominated Indostan, from the Hindoos, or Gentoos, who inhabit it. The Mogul empire was shattered by Thomas-Kouli-Kahn, who, in re-establishing the dethroned prince, left him nothing more than a shadow of power. The late Great Mogul, possessed little more than the city of Delhi and the adjacent territories. All the peninsula of India, which, under the administration of Rajahs, Subahs, and Nabobs, was formerly dependent on the Mogul empire, has, by degrees, been liberating itself from that domination ever since the invasion of Thomas-Kouli-Kahn, and at this time is divided into several states, of which the most powerful are the possessions of the English East-India Company, those of the Nizam, and those of the Mahrattas. Delhi is the capital of the Mogul empire: Agra is the greatest city of India. The hither coast of the Indian peninsula is called Malabar; the farther coast bears the name of Coromandel.

India, beyond the Ganges, is little known to the moderns, and was less known to the ancients. It contains many states or kingdoms, of which the most spoken of are Ava, Pegu and Aracan, composing the Birman empire; together with Siam, Malacca, Tonquin, Cochin-China, &c.

CHINA is reputed to be the best cultivated and most populous country of the earth, and is singular for its laws, its morals, usages and manners. We are very imperfectly acquainted with it, owing to the policy of the government, which is extremely jealous of foreign visitors. The most authentic details respecting the Chinese and their institutions,

are to be found in the account given of the English ambassador, Lord Macartney's, mission to the Sovereign of that Empire, which took place in 1793. China dates her origin four thousand years ago. She furnishes an uninterrupted history from about two hundred years before Jesus Christ; and lays a doubtful claim to the invention of gun powder, printing and the mariner's compass, previously to their discovery in Europe. A fortified wall, 1500 miles in extent, forms a defence for her northern frontier, and it is said to have been made about 2000 years ago. The Chinese have a canal of more than 180 leagues in length, traversing a part of the empire from south to north. According to the documents procured by Lord Macartney, the territory of China comprehends 1,297,999 square miles; 333,000,000 of inhabitants; has 4,400 walled towns; and an armed force of 1,000,000 of infantry and 800,000 cavalry. Peking is the capital, and is said to contain 3,000,000 of inhabitants. Canton, the only port at which Europeans are permitted to trade, has one million two hundred thousand inhabitants. The people in general are Pagans; and Confucius is their most celebrated philosopher. Tea is the grand commodity of exportation from China, and has become an article of use and merchandise all over the globe. The porcelain of that part of the world was not known to the ancients. The Portuguese began to import it not long after their first voyage to China, A. D. 1517; but it was a considerable time before the use of it became extensive.

The TARTARIES are three in number. Russian Tartary, which extends from the Volga to Kamschatka: It is separated from the north west coast of America by Behring's Straights, which are not very wide, and are perpetually obstructed by ice.

Tobolsk is the capital. Chinese Tartary includes the Mantchou Tartars, and the black and yellow Moguls. Titsicar is the capital. Independent Tartary is situated between the other two, and is environed by China, India and Persia; the inhabitants are chiefly the Calmuc and the Usec Tartars. The principal cities are Samarcand, Balk, Bokara, Otrar and Toncat.

In Asia, several conquerors have marked a wider circuit than Alexander the Great. Towards the close of the 12th century, Gengis-Kan succeeded his father in the government of several Mogul Tartar hordes, to the north of China. By his talents and his courage, he made himself master of every thing around him; subdued the nations from the Volga to the wall of China, and from the peninsula of Corea to the Euphrates. At his death, his empire was divided between his four sons, each of whom found himself one of the most powerful monarchs of the earth. The descendants of Gengis were eclipsed of their power by the victories of Tamerlane.

Timur, or Tamerlane, born without inheritance, created for himself an empire more extensive than that of the Macedonian hero. His conquests included Indostan, Persia, part of Asia, Turkey in Asia, Independent and part of Chinese Tartary. He defeated the Turkish Emperor Bajazet, on the plains of Angora, in Phrygia, in 1402, where a great battle was fought between the two rivals, in which, it is said, 2,000,000 of men were engaged. The posterity of Timur, like that of Gengis, have sunk beneath the superior fortune and abilities of succeeding princes, who sprung up in Asia Minor, in Persia, India, and other parts. Aurengzebe, the Mogul Emperor, who died in 1707, at the age of more

than one hundred, was one of his descendants. His race, however, has possessed nothing but a nominal authority ever since 1739, when Thomas-Kouli-Kahn overturned its authority in India. This Thomas-Kouli-Kahn reigned over Persia under the name of Shah-Nadir. C.

LETTER XXVI.

AFRICA, including Egypt, the Coast of Barbary, the Western, Southern, and Eastern Coasts, and the Interior.

With the exception of Egypt and the coast of Barbary, Africa was, perhaps, less known to the ancients than to the moderns. The stupid barbarity of its inhabitants, the ferocity of its beasts, and the venom of its reptiles, seem to mark it, in some measure, as the refuse of creation.

EGYPT, which, in effect, was the cradle of human knowledge, and is not included in the preceding remarks, has been already spoken of. The Egyptians filled the earth with the fame of their wisdom, of their laws, their government, and their works, whilst the Carthaginians, situated more to the west, were celebrated for their riches, their conflicts, and their fall. BARBARY, on the coast of which Carthage was situated, was considered, both under the Carthaginian and Roman dominion, as the garden of the world. The fortune of Carthage sunk beneath that of Rome, which, in turn, yielded to the valor of barbarians. In the fifth century the Vandals, under

Genseric, drove out the Romans, and founded his throne upon the ruins of ancient Carthage. From the presence of these destructive hordes this fine portion of the earth was relieved by the martial genius and active courage of the renowned and unhappy Belisarius, at the head of the armies of the eastern division of the Roman empire. This triumph of civilization, however, was but temporary. The Saracens entered the country and reduced it to a state of rudeness. These Masters of Barbary divided, and formed distinct establishments. Fez, Morocco, Tunis, Algiers, and Tripoli, were founded under different sovereigns. After a reign of some centuries, distinguished for nothing but licentiousness and depredation, the Saracens were subjugated by the Turks, who have preserved and promoted the ignorance and barbarism which they found in the country. The conquests of the Turks in Africa were divided among the lieutenants of the Grand Seignior, upon whom the states of Barbary are at present only nominally dependent. Thus arose the present political constitution of the Barbary powers, where the Dey is the tyrant, the Turkish soldiers the senate, and the inhabitants are slaves. Agriculture is neglected, piracy is encouraged; and the ruling chieftains acknowledge the Grand Seignior as their superior, without paying any regard to his commands.

EGYPT, which at present strongly attracts the attention of European potentates, is divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower Egypt. Upper Egypt contains Girge, Siut, Cosseir, and Assuan. Middle Egypt contains Cairo, Boulac, Fium, and Suez: And Lower Egypt comprehends Alexandria, Damietta, Rosetta, and Aboukir. The Grand Seignior deposes a Vice Roy to govern Egypt; but the real

sovereigns were, for a long time, twenty-four Beys, elected by a standing military force of 10,000 Mamelukes. The power of the Beys, however, has been diminished, if not extinguished, by the cruel policy of the Ottomans.

BARBARY includes the empire of Morocco, the regencies of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, the country of Barca and Tafi let, Sugelmessa, Billedulgerid, &c. Morocco is an imperial despotism, founded by the Arabs. The regencies are aristocracies, whose chiefs are called Deys or Beys, and are elected by the Turkish soldiers. The French and Spaniards, in modern times, have occupied a few posts on the coasts of Barbary.

The western coast of Africa, or GUINEA, embraces an immense extent of country, from Cape Blanc to Cape Negro. It is that part of Africa which is most frequented by Europeans, and is the principal theatre of their commerce. From thence are exported gums, ivory, wax, gold dust, and especially slaves. Of the latter, it is computed that, before the commencement of the French revolution, there were exported from Guinea more than one hundred thousand annually. The inhabitants receive, in exchange for slaves, powder, fire-arms, brandy, glass-ware, and silk and cotton stuffs. Guinea is peopled by various hordes, who are in a state of perpetual warfare with each other, and thereby furnish a supply for the slave market. The United States of America, in framing their constitution, in 1787, led the way to the abolition of this scandalous traffic. By that instrument, Congress were empowered, in the year 1808, to prohibit the importation of slaves; and accordingly, on the second day of March, 1807, that body passed a law, which was approved by the then President Thomas Jefferson, declaring it illegal

from and after the first day of January, 1808, to import or bring into the United States or the territories thereof, from any foreign kingdom, place or country, any negro, mulatto; or person of color, with intent to hold, sell, or dispose of, such negro, mulatto, or person of color, as a slave, or to be held to service or labor. Great Britain, finding that the United States were determined to carry into rigid execution their constitutional provision relative to the slave-trade, yielded to the spirit of humanity, and interdicted to her subjects a commerce which, however lucrative, only served to disgrace them. Guinea is subdivided into several districts, denominated Senegal, Gambia, Sierra Leona, the Grain Coast, Ivory Coast, the Slave Coast, the Gold Coast, the kingdoms of Benin, of Loango, of Congo, of Angola, Benguela, Bamba, &c. The Portuguese formerly possessed all the Southern ports, and were the first who dealt in slaves; and the Dutch and Danes had establishments; but the English, from the superiority of their navy, hold a preponderating control over all the settlements in that part of Africa.

The Southern point of the African continent, or the CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, comprehending an extensive district of country, was formerly subject to the Dutch East-India Company, from whom it was captured by the British in 1795. This is the country of the Caffres and the Hottentots, of whom interesting accounts have been furnished by Barrow, Vaillant, and others. The colony of the Cape of Good Hope was founded by the Dutch in 1650, under the direction of a surgeon named Vanriebeck, and served as a convenient place for refitting ships bound to India. It is inhabited by about 15,000 Europeans and 50,000 slaves; and produces a very

delicious wine, known by the name of the Cape or Constantia wine.

Of the **EASTERN COAST** of Africa, very little is known. The Portuguese are the only Europeans who have established themselves there, which they did in virtue of their discovery of the passage to India by the Cape of Good-Hope. Having no rival in that quarter, they have exercised authority in a very arbitrary manner. This tract of country includes the districts of Monomotapa, Sofala, which is thought to be the Ophir of Solomon; Mozambique, Zanguebar, Melinda, Brava, Magadoxo, Abyssinia, Nubia, &c. The forms of government among the natives on the Eastern Coast, are, in general, monarchical or despotic; but they are almost all tributary or dependent on the Portuguese.

The **INTERIOR** of Africa has been either very little visited by travellers, or is altogether unknown. All that we know with certainty is, that it is overspread, in various parts, with arid deserts, frightful beasts, and uncivilized men. The Interior comprehends Sahara, or the Great Desert, which is subdivided into the districts of Zanhaga, Zuenziga, Targa, Lemta, and Berdoa; the country of Tombut, Fezzan, Cashna, Bornou, Darfour, the greater part of Caffraria, Monomugi, &c.

In 1788, there was formed in London a society for encouraging discoveries in the Interior of Africa. This Society dispatched several missionaries into that country: Of these, the first soon died; the second furnished very little information that was authentic; but the third, Mungo Park, has published interesting recitals of his discoveries; which he prosecuted in the years 1795, 1796, and 1797. Park set out from the mouth of the river Gambia, traversed the space between the Gambia and the Senegal,

and proceeded as far as a place called Silla, seated on the river Niger, whence he returned, by a devious route, to the place from which he started. In a subsequent expedition, Park is supposed to have perished; as no authentic accounts have ever been received from him.

In 1781, Vaillant undertook to explore a portion of the African continent. He set out from the Cape of Good-Hope, and penetrated a considerable distance into the countries of the Hottentots and Caffres. He has furnished some very curious particulars of the customs and manners of these people.

Browne, another traveller, departed from Cairo, in Egypt, ascended the Nile to Siout, and diverging to the right of that river, passed along the skirts of Nubia, and reached as far as a place called Gobbeh.

Bruce is another traveller into Africa, of great celebrity. He traversed Nubia to Sennar, and proceeded, in search of the sources of the Nile, through Abyssinia, where he alleges that he found them.

In 1798, Hornmann prosecuted travels into Africa, crossing Egypt towards Barca, and proceeded as far as Mourzook, the capital of Fezzan.

These have been succeeded by other travellers, with but little success in satisfactory discoveries.

There are many Islands that appertain to the continent of Africa. In the Western Ocean are Madeira, the Canaries, Cape de Verds, Goree, Ascension, St. Helena, &c. In the Eastern Ocean are Madagascar, the Isles of France and Bourbon, of Comora, and some others.

Notwithstanding the aridity of the African climate, the discoveries which have been made indicate that many parts of the Interior are fruitful, and might, with industry and knowledge, contribute to the comfort and happiness of mankind: The Interi-

or of that continent, the coasts and islands of which now serve chiefly for resting places and ports of refreshment, may, it is hoped, in after-times, when more fully explored, become a scene of the fairest virtues and the noblest actions of the human race.

C.

LETTER XXVII.

AMERICA—including the BRITISH POSSESSIONS in North America; the UNITED STATES; and the SPANISH and PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS in North and South America.

Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, arguing, from the nature of a globe, which the world was held to be, that by keeping a course continually west he should eventually arrive at the Eastern Coasts of Asia, or discover some new land in his passage, applied, successively, to the governments of Genoa, of France, of England, and of Portugal, for the means of verifying this conjecture: But he was treated by all of them as a man deluded by a chimera. Columbus, however, had reasoned with too much calmness and assurity upon the subject to be induced easily to abandon his idea, and after eight years of solicitation at the court of Isabella, queen of Castile, he succeeded in procuring a small equipment wherewith to execute his enterprize. He departed in 1492, with a few vessels of no great burthen, which had been granted to his importunity rather than confided to his wisdom. After being at sea for thirty-three days, during which his crew had evinced the

most mutinous disposition, he discovered one of the Bahama Islands, which, in reference to his personal situation, he called *Saint Salvador* ; for he would have had to return to Spain, or have perished by the hands of his mariners, if he had not, about that time, approached the land. From Saint Salvador he proceeded to Hayti, which he found full of people, and abounding in gold and all sorts of useful productions. To Hayti he gave the name of Hispaniola, which is the same island that is now generally denominated St. Domingo. He then returned to Spain, where he was received with the most extravagant demonstrations of joy. Such is the history of the discovery of America, the nominal honor of which has, in some degree, been filched from Columbus by a native of Florence, whose name was Americus Vesputius, and who, coasting some years afterwards along the continent, published the first charts of the country. Columbus made several voyages to America, in the course of which he took possession of other Islands in the name of his sovereign. He died in Spain in 1506, having experienced much of royal ingratitude, and having been persecuted by those who envied his reputation.

A great portion of the North American Continent is almost unknown : And this portion is, perhaps, greater in extent than all Europe. It is inhabited by tribes of Indians, who, generally speaking, are perfectly savage. It was for a long time a prevailing opinion, that there existed a passage by sea from the eastern to the western coast of this continent ; but the travels and voyages of several adventurers have nearly, if not totally, destroyed it. None have more assisted in elucidating this contested point than Vancouver, who, by his researches and observations for a period of five years, has succeeded :

in making the north-west coast of America one of the best known points of our globe. Nootka Sound, which lies in that direction, was visited by captain Cook in 1777. The English established themselves there in 1785, in order to promote a trade in furs to China: The Spaniards becoming jealous of this establishment, sent thither a force which dispossessed the English, and this produced an altercation between the two powers that had nearly ended in a war, but was amicably adjusted in the year 1790.

The BRITISH POSSESSIONS in North-America are divided into several provinces. New Britain embraces all the tract north of Canada, comprehending the Esquimaux country, which includes Labrador, and New South Wales, Canada, of which Quebec is the chief town. Nova Scotia, having for its capital Halifax; and New-Brunswick, the capital of which is St. John's. New Britain is an immense country, which environs Hudson's Bay: the boundaries of it are very inaccurately defined; and the inhabitants, who are the Eskimaux Indians, are altogether uncivilized. Canada and Nova-Scotia are, comparatively speaking, in a very flourishing condition: Ever since the independence of the United States the British have paid great attention to them, particularly to their commerce, which has given an impulse to industry and tended greatly to increase their population. Canada was taken possession of by the French in 1535; Quebec was built in 1608; but in 1759 the whole country was conquered by the English, and has been in their possession ever since. Nova Scotia was settled by Sir Wm. Alexander in 1622, but ten years afterwards it was sold to the French. It was taken again in 1654, and ceded back in 1668; recovered by Sir William Phipps in 1690, and given again to the French in

1697; but the English conquered it once more in 1710, and it was confirmed to them at the peace of Utrecht in 1713. New-Brunswick was formerly a part of Nova-Scotia, and was erected into a separate province in 1784. For our knowledge of these northern countries we are greatly indebted to the efforts of those who endeavored to find a north-western passage to China. Frobisher vainly attempted it in 1576: he discovered Labrador. Davis made the experiment in 1585, and has given his name to the straits that lead into Baffin's Bay. Henry Hudson made sundry voyages in that direction in 1607, in 1608, and in 1610: he discovered the Bay which bears his name and perished in 1611, a victim to his zeal and the rage of a majority of his crew, who forced him and his son and some others into a shallop which was never after heard of. The mutineers arrived at Plymouth in September 1611. Another effort was made by Ellis in 1746, which, as to its ultimate object, was also fruitless.

An exclusive trade to a part of America was granted in 1670, by Charles II. to the *Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading to Hudson's Bay*: they were to have the sole trade and commerce of and to all the seas, bays, straits, creeks, lakes, rivers and sounds, in whatsoever latitude, that lie within the entrance of the strait commonly called Hudson's straits; together with all the lands, countries and territories, upon the coasts of such seas, bays and straits, which were then possessed by any English subject or the subjects of any other Christian state; together with the fishing of all sorts of fish, of whales, sturgeon, and all other royal fish, together with the royalty of the sea. But this extensive charter has not received any parliamentary confirmation or sanction. They carry on

a considerable trade in furs and peltries. By their communication with the Indians, the English find a considerable vent for their coarse manufactures. Authority is exercised in these provinces by Governors General, sub-governors, and local assemblies, acting under the sanction of the crown and parliament.

The UNITED STATES were formerly British colonies. They are situated in the center of the northern part of the continent of America, are in possession of the knowledge and the arts of the oldest nations of Europe, are rapidly augmenting in population and wealth, will at some future period undoubtedly give the law to the western hemisphere, and check the expansion of European domination. The American Union has been formed out of different states, founded at different epochs, by various European emigrants.

Sebastian Cabot, in the service of Henry VII. of England, first discovered the continent of North America in 1497. About the same time numerous expeditions were fitted out for making discoveries in the New World, and curiosity being stimulated by avarice, settlements began to be formed in the succeeding century from the gulf of Mexico to the river St Lawrence. It would seem, however, that none of a permanent nature were effected till 1608, when the French commenced an establishment at Quebec. In the year 1609, lord De la War established the colony of Virginia: In 1610 Newfoundland was settled by Governor John Guy. New Jersey was colonized by the Dutch in 1616, and by the English in 1664. About 1616 the Dutch settled New-York. In 1620 Plymouth was settled by part of Mr. Robinson's congregation of Puritans; and in 1628 captain John Endicott and company made a

colonial establishment at Massachusetts Bay, In 1627 Pennsylvania was planted by the Swedes and Fins; and in 1682 by William Penn. The Swedes and Fins also settled in Delaware in 1627. New Hampshire was founded in 1623 by the English. Maryland was settled by Lord Baltimore in 1633. The colony of Connecticut was commenced by Mr. Benwick at Saybrook in 1635. Mr. Roger Williams retired from Massachusetts with his persecuted brethren in 1637, and founded Rhode Island. In 1669 South Carolina was settled by Governor Sayles, and North-Carolina by the English in 1728. General Oglethorpe founded Georgia in 1732; and Kentucky was explored and settled by Col. Daniel Boone in 1773. Emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England, were established in Vermont from 1764 to 1777. Emigrants from all parts of the Union settled Tennessee about the year 1783; and in 1787 the settlement of the Territory North West of the river Ohio was promoted by the Ohio and other companies. Such is the current of those establishments, out of which have grown the present United States. Louisiana, and a part of West-Florida were purchased from the French in 1803.

Before the association was formed and whilst the States were colonies, the American provinces were invariably involved in the wars which grew out of the passions of the governments of Europe. Those establishments appertaining to Great Britain, were sparing neither in money nor men, to insure the triumph of the British arms, and to sustain the honor of the British name, and at the close of the war between France and Great Britain in 1763, which was distinguished by victories and conquests in both hemispheres, they flourished in population, commerce and wealth. But the splendor of her successes

abroad impoverished the subjects of Great Britain at home ; and whilst her flag waved unrivalled over every sea, she was oppressed with a load of debt and increasing expenses, that called incessantly for new taxes and impositions on her people. The ingenuity of her financial statesmen was perplexed in a labyrinth of difficulty, from which they attempted to escape by an expedient that finally lost to Great Britain the most considerable part of her American possessions. In the year 1764 a bill was passed in parliament, by which heavy duties were laid on goods imported by the colonists from such West-India Islands as did not belong to the British, and the duties were to be paid into the exchequer in specie : And immediately after another bill was framed to restrain the currency of paper money in the colonies. The Americans complained and remonstrated, without avail ; and at length resorted to an agreement to import no more British manufactures, but by all means in their power to encourage those of domestic fabric. The English ministry would not relax, but proceeded to impose stamp duties throughout the continent. The stamp act met with much opposition in its passage through parliament ; but it eventually passed. When it arrived at Boston it was received with universal indignation. The stamps, wherever they could be found, were destroyed ; and those who were appointed to receive the duties were terrified into a resignation of their offices. It was now broadly asserted that Great Britain had no right whatever to tax the colonies without their consent. This doctrine was maintained on the ground that British subjects could not be lawfully taxed without being represented in the legislature. Virginia took the lead, and all the rest of the provinces followed the example,

in the declaration that Great Britain had no right to tax them, and that every attempt to vest others with this power besides the king, or the governor of the province, and his general assembly, was unconstitutional and unjust. Non-importation agreements were every where entered into, and it was even resolved to prevent the sale of any more British goods. The ladies agreed to renounce the use of every ornament manufactured in Britain. This general confederacy determined the ministry to repeal some of the most obnoxious of these statutes. The stamp act was revoked ; but the joy which the revocation gave rise to was damped by the ungracious and concomitant declaration in a bill, published for the purpose, of the authority of the mother country over her colonies, and her power to bind them by laws and statutes *in all cases whatever*. A spirit of jealousy still prevailed, and a strong party was formed watchful of the rights of the American people. Soon after an act was passed, imposing a duty upon tea, papers, painters' colors, and glass, imported into America. This roused the resentment of persons of all classes, and a more general combination than ever was formed to resist the pretensions of parliament. The inhabitants of the Massachusetts colony behaved in the most intrepid manner ; open controversies took place between the assembly and the governor, and the latter soon lost all influence in the province. It would be incompatible with the limits of this work to recite all the incidents which marked the early stages of this contest between the parent country and the colonies. The Bostonians at length made forcible opposition to the duty on tea, by not suffering the cargoes of several ships laden with it to be landed, and, in the dress of Mohawk Indians, going on board and throwing 342 chests of

tea into the sea. This happened in November 1773, and was the immediate prelude to the revolutionary struggle. The British ministry were highly exasperated and passed a number of acts exceedingly obnoxious to the provincials. Among these was the Boston Port Bill, shutting up the port of Boston and cutting off its trade. Gen. Gage now arrived as Governor, and removed the assembly to Salem. Here that body passed a resolution declaring the necessity of a general congress, composed of delegates from all the provinces, in order to take the affairs of the colonies at large into consideration, and five gentlemen were forthwith chosen to represent Massachusetts. A summary of grievances was then drawn up and circulated through the country. Virginia boldly stood forth as the champion of freedom and united in promoting a general congress. Pennsylvania and New York gradually came into the measure. At Boston a *solemn league and covenant* was entered into, whereby the signers bound themselves to relinquish the use of British goods, to associate with none who did use them, or who refused to subscribe the covenant. Similar agreements were simultaneously entered into throughout America. Gen. Gage, in a proclamation, denounced this combination as illegal and traitorous, and threatened such as signed or countenanced it with the pains of the law. His proclamation, however, had little effect. Delegates were chosen for each province, in number from two to seven for each colony, though no colony had more than one vote. The congress met at Philadelphia, as the most central place, in autumn 1774; and the patriotic proceedings of the people in different quarters were approved. They addressed a letter to Gen. Gage, stated their grievances, intreated him to desist from military opera-

tions and published a declaration of their rights as Englishmen. The British forces at Boston, nevertheless, continued to increase; and Gen. Gage began to fortify the neck of land which joins the town of Boston to the continent. This gave great umbrage to the citizens, who vehemently remonstrated against it. Gage paid no attention to their remonstrances, but proceeded to seize the provincial powder, ammunition and military stores, at Cambridge and Charlestown. The Americans were by this time universally inflamed with resentment, began to study the art of war, established companies of *minute-men*, to be ready for service at a moment's warning, and took such other steps as were considered necessary to insure success to their cause. Things were in this state, when, on the 19th of April 1775, Gen. Gage sent a party of his troops to destroy the military stores collected at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston. This party had marched before day-break, and about five in the morning had reached Lexington, fifteen miles from Boston, where some militia were exercising. An officer called out to the latter to disperse, and it being alleged that at the moment some shots were fired from an adjacent house, the British military made a discharge, which killed and wounded several of the militia. The detachment then proceeded to Concord, destroyed the stores, had a scuffle with the Americans, and several persons fell on both sides. The king's troops retreated through a sharp fire kept up from Concord to Lexington, where their ammunition failed, and they would have been entirely cut off if lord Percy had not come to their aid with two field pieces. The spirits of the Americans were much elevated by this conflict. They assembled a large army in the neighborhood of Boston,

X

and held the British in check. Towards the end of May, however, the latter received considerable reinforcements under Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton. Some skirmishing had taken place, in which the Americans had the advantage: But on the night of the 16th of June they took possession of a high ground, that overlooks the town of Boston, called *Bunker's* or *Breed's Hill*, and before daylight almost completed a redoubt and a strong entrenchment. Before mid-day the work was completed, notwithstanding a heavy cannonade from the British. These now marched to the attack of the Hill under Generals Howe and Pigot, supported by General Clinton. The Americans received them with a fire that occasioned a prodigious slaughter. By burning Charlestown, where the Americans had taken post, the British succeeded in carrying the Hill, having lost about one thousand men, among whom were nineteen officers killed and seventy wounded. The American loss was about five hundred, including Gen. Warren, who was much lamented. This battle, in which the king's troops claimed the victory, taught them to respect their adversaries, and made them more cautious in their movements. The war had now seriously commenced. The exportation of provisions was every where prohibited to such colonies of America as continued to adhere to the British interest. Congress resolved to establish an army, and to issue a large paper currency to support it. Private parties were organized in favor of the public cause: Colonels Easton and Ethan Allen, with about 250 men, surprised Crown Point and Ticonderoga on the side of Canada. Articles of confederation and perpetual Union were drawn up and proposed to the States.

On the 6th of July, 1775, Congress published a very eloquent declaration, reciting their grievances, asserting their rights, proclaiming that "honor, justice and humanity, forbade them tamely to surrender that freedom which they received from their gallant ancestors, and which their innocent posterity had a right to receive from them." This Congress rejected a conciliatory proposal made by Lord North and appointed George Washington to command their armies in chief. His commission was made out in the name of the states, signed by John Hancock, President of Congress, and by Charles Thompson, as Secretary. Horatio Gates was chosen adjutant-general, and Charles Lee a major-general: Both these were English officers of considerable reputation—Artemas Ward, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam, were also nominated major-generals. Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan and Nathaniel Green, were chosen brigadier-generals. It was then determined to invade Canada and reduce Quebec, during the winter. For this purpose 3000 men were put under the command of Generals Montgomery and Schuyler, with directions to proceed by lake Champlain. In the course of the expedition General Schuyler was taken sick, and Montgomery was left to command alone. He succeeded in getting possession of St. John's, a strong fort on the river Sorel, a branch of the St. Lawrence, notwithstanding he was vigorously opposed by General Carleton, a man of capacity for war. Montreal next fell into the hands of General Montgomery, which opened the way to Quebec. Meanwhile Colonel Arnold, penetrating with a body of troops through frightful morasses and solitudes, found a nearer way to that

place. A junction being formed before the town by these two officers, and it being found impossible to take the place by siege, General Montgomery determined to attempt a surprise on the last day of December 1775. Two real and two feigned attacks were made, in order to distract the garrison. The Americans advanced by break of day in the midst of a heavy fall of snow ; but the signal for the attack being given too soon the surprize did not take effect. General Montgomery and his principal officers were slain by the fire of the enemy. Colonel Arnold bravely forced one of the barriers, and being carried off wounded, his officers forced a second barrier ; but the attack under Montgomery having failed, the garrison rallied their whole force against Arnold's party, and overpowered it. That officer, with about 800 men, only retired to the distance of a few miles from Quebec, and continued still to annoy it. Congress created Colonel Arnold a Brigadier General. The flame of war now began to spread in every direction. Lord Dunmore, the Governor of Virginia, was driven from that colony, after having attempted first to intimidate the inhabitants into submission, next to reconcile them to lord North's project, then to raise an insurrection among the slaves, and to excite the Ohio Indians, through the agency of one Connelly, to unite with the British in subduing the people. By his lordship's contrivance the town of Norfolk was reduced to ashes. The governors of North and South Carolina were likewise expelled. Boston was still occupied by the forces of Great Britain, and the inhabitants were prohibited from leaving it under pain of military execution. But in March, 1776, General Washington opened batteries on the town, and the British were compelled to leave it, carrying

along with them 2000 of the Bostonians attached to the British cause, who proceeded to Halifax, and whose estates were confiscated. At length, on the 4th day of July, 1776, in a most impressive and rational declaration, the Americans proclaimed themselves free, sovereign and *ind~~e~~pendent*. The declaration was received with enthusiasm, and supported with wisdom and energy.

The year 1776 was not very fortunate to the American arms: Arnold was obliged to abandon Quebec, and the hope of doing any thing in Canada at that time was relinquished: The Americans were followed in their retreat by General Burgoyne. In North Carolina, however, the British and their partizans were defeated by General Moore. In South Carolina they were bravely repulsed after a bloody conflict, in an attack from the Sea by a squadron under the command of Sir Peter Parker, aided by some troops conducted by Lord Cornwallis, and Generals Clinton and Vaughan. This year the Americans fitted out a few vessels of war under the orders of commodore Hopkins, who proceeded to the Bahama Islands, where he secured some ordnance and military stores. The British next advanced upon New-York with a large land and naval force, under lord and general Howe. The former having been appointed a commissioner to receive the submission of the colonists, made overtures to General Washington, which were rejected with much spirit. Every thing was now committed to the decision of the sword. In the month of August the king's troops, including a body of Hessians, landed, on Long-Island, General Putnam with a large body of Americans then lying encamped and fortified on a peninsula on the opposite shore, with a range of hills between the armies, the principal

pass of which was near Flatbush. Owing to one of the important passes being left unguarded the British attacked and beat the Americans, who lost on that day, the 27th of August, more than 1000 men. On the 29th of August, in the night, they abandoned their camp. Lord Howe, supposing Congress would be humbled, sent in General Sullivan, who had been made prisoner, to propose a conference with the members in their private capacity; but that body maintained their dignity in the midst of misfortune. A committee was, nevertheless, appointed to confer with his Lordship, consisting of Dr. Franklin, Mr. Adams, and Mr. Rutledge. Lord Howe received them politely; but they declaring they would only treat as independent states, the conference proved fruitless. The Americans now abandoned the city of New-York, of which the British took possession, and pursuing their advantages, pushed on and attacked the republicans with some success at the White Plains. General Howe afterwards took forts Washington and Lee, and laid open winter quarters for his army in the Jerseys. Sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Rhode-Island, and blocked up the squadron of Commodore Hopkins in the Providence. General Burgoyne pressed the Americans on the side of Canada, and compelled Arnold to a precipitate flight; after behaving with great gallantry. Feeble minds now began to waver: Washington's army was amazingly reduced in number: General Lee, coming with a reinforcement from the north, by negligence suffered himself to be made prisoner. Every thing looked gloomy. But Congress did not despair; they animated the recruiting service; prolonged the term of enlistment; combined avarice with patriotism by offering large bounties; borrowed five millions of dollars at five per cent. on

the faith of the United States; and roused the public feeling by a glowing address. At this period General Washington gave a decisive turn to public sentiment by the defeat and capture of nearly 1000 Hessians at Trenton, together with their arms, ammunition, and artillery. This occurred on the 26th of December; and Col Ralle, the Hessian commander, was mortally wounded. The American army was now reinforced from every quarter; General Washington maintained himself in the Jerseys; attacked the British at Maidenhead; and, on the whole, although this campaign had been adverse to the cause of independence, Great Britain had very little positive advantage to boast.

In the year 1777 the British began the campaign by sending out predatory detachments. They destroyed the magazines at Peekskill, burnt the town of Danbury, and possessed themselves of Ridgefield. In this last affair they were harassed by the Americans under Arnold, Sullivan, and Wooster. Wooster was killed, and Arnold was in great danger. The Americans also destroyed the British Stores at Sag-Harbor. About this time General Prescott was taken by the republicans in much the same manner that Lee had been. The British next resolved to approach Philadelphia by the Chesapeake Bay, and landed at the head of Elk: General Washington met them at Brandywine creek, between the head of Elk and Philadelphia, where a general engagement took place on the 11th of September, in which the Americans were worsted, having lost about 1000 killed and wounded, besides 400 prisoners. General Washington retired towards Lancaster, and the British General, after pursuing him some distance, took quiet possession of Philadelphia on the 26th of September. The Americans

subsequently attacked a division of the royal army at Germantown, but were repulsed, with the loss of about 1300 in killed, wounded and prisoners. The British lost some excellent officers, with about 500 men. In the north, General Burgoyne, with a co-operating force under Colonel St. Leger, advanced with a chosen body of English and German troops, aided by the Indians, to the invasion of the States bordering on Canada. General St. Clair was compelled to retreat before him. General Schuyler endeavored to make a stand against him, but was forced to retire to Saratoga. Here the American army was reinforced by volunteers and drafted militia, and General Arnold was ordered to repair thither with a train of artillery. Col. St. Leger's expedition in aid of Burgoyne proved unfortunate; and General Burgoyne himself began to be straitened for provisions, and was much obstructed by the badness of the roads. Detachments of the British were sent off to secure supplies at Bennington; but they were encountered by General Starke, and either cut to pieces or dispersed. Having, at length, procured a small supply of provisions, General Burgoyne encamped on the heights and plains of Saratoga. Here he was vigorously attacked, hemmed in, and, being destitute of food, finally surrendered his army to General Gates, amounting to upwards of 5000 men. They were to have a free passage home, and not to serve against the Americans during the war. The booty was considerable. This brilliant achievement, in which officers and men, especially General Arnold, displayed great heroism, notwithstanding some minor successes by the British, terminated this campaign gloriously for the republicans. General Washington's army, however,

suffered severely this year at Cherry Valley for want of supplies.

The year 1778 was distinguished by a treaty of alliance between the United States and France. The articles were formally signed on the 6th of February. They guarantied, in general, mutual assistance, the independence of America, and the conquests made by each party. Congress had formed a regular plan of confederation, and had agents at the different courts of Europe to further their interests. The country was again tempted to submission under lord North's conciliatory bill, which met with reprobation and contempt. On the 18th of June the British army evacuated Philadelphia. They were pursued and attacked by the Americans in the Jerseys, but effected their escape. On this occasion General Lee was suspended by General Washington in the field for disobedience of orders. Arriving at Sandy-Hook the royal troops were conveyed on board their fleet. This year a French squadron arrived, under Count d'Estaing, to assist the Americans; but it effected nothing, and an enterprize concerted with the French admiral for the recovery of Rhode-Island proved abortive. The British engaged in several plundering expeditions along the eastern coasts, and were successful in sundry attacks upon detached parties of the Americans.

In the beginning of the year 1779, Georgia was subdued; Carolina was attempted by General Prevost, and defended by Generals Lincoln and Moultrie. Count d'Estaing arriving off Georgia with his squadron, an ineffectual attack was made on Savannah, where the American loss was very considerable; the Count Pulaski was killed, and d'Estaing was wounded. Sir George Collier undertook an

expedition to Penobscot Bay, and did much damage; the British took Stoney-Point, and ravaged and burnt several towns in Connecticut. Stoney-Point, however, was retaken by General Wayne, who carried the place by assault, amidst showers of musketry and grape-shot. In June of this year, Spain united herself to the American cause, which furnished the British with another enemy. General Sullivan was despatched by Congress to take vengeance on the Indians for their depredations, which he did in a most exemplary manner.

In the year 1780 the war was chiefly transferred to the southern states. Charleston surrendered to General Clinton in the early part of the summer. General Gates was defeated with great slaughter by Earl Cornwallis at Camden; and Colonel Tarleton did much mischief by his activity and enterprise. At King's Mountain, however, the British were defeated in a very brilliant action, losing about 1000 men. Congress at this time were much embarrassed by the depreciation of their paper currency, and passed some acts to renovate the departments of war, treasury, &c. In this year Count Rochambeau arrived at Rhode-Island in a French squadron, with a fine body of French troops, who were well received. General Arnold deserted from his country, and Major Andre, the principal agent in his defection, was executed as a spy. Arnold was made a Brigadier-General in the King's service and in the end died wretched and despised. Mr. Laurens, at one time President of Congress, was taken on a mission to Holland, some of his papers secured, and himself committed close prisoner to the Tower in London, after an examination before the privy council, on a charge of high treason. War

took place this year between Great Britain and Holland.

In the beginning of 1781 the British formed some hopes from the revolt of about 1500 American troops, forming the Pennsylvania line, who refused to serve any longer unless they were paid. The British sent to offer them their back pay, if they would lay down their arms and return to their homes and allegiance to the King: but the troops rejected the offer with disdain. The affair was afterwards satisfactorily adjusted through the means of Joseph Reed, esq. president of Pennsylvania. General Morgan this year defeated Colonel Tarleton at the Cowpens, on the 17th of January, with great loss, taking his cannon, colors, and killing, wounding and making prisoners of many of his men. Lord Cornwallis, notwithstanding, penetrated into North Carolina; and General Green was advancing to meet him. In the mean time the traitor Arnold landed in Virginia and committed depredations at Richmond, Westham, and other places. A severe battle was fought in March at Guilford Court-House, between Lord Cornwallis and General Green, in which, although the British claimed the victory, the Americans had the real advantage. On the 25th of April General Green had a severe conflict with lord Rawdon at Camden, and would have beat him but for the misconduct of some of his officers. Colonel Washington behaved very well on this occasion. Indeed, in this campaign, even when the Americans were worsted, they displayed great heroism. Such was the case at the Eutaw Springs, where Green was present. The marquis de la Fayette very much distinguished himself in the American cause. In the latter end of the year

Arnold was sent on an expedition against New-London, in Connecticut, where he destroyed the shipping, naval stores, and large quantities of European and West-India goods. The town itself was burnt. The traitor met with great resistance, and had to carry every thing at the point of the bayonet. Notwithstanding his successes, lord Cornwallis found himself in a critical situation, and Sir Henry Clinton, the British commander in chief, was prevented from sending reinforcements to him from an apprehension that General Washington meditated an attack upon New-York. Lord Cornwallis had fortified himself at Yorktown and Gloucester; on the 28th of August Sir Samuel Hood arrived off New-York with a squadron, where he joined admiral Graves, and on the 5th of September they arrived in the Chesapeake with 19 ships of the line, where they found the French admiral Count de Grasse with 24 ships of war: they came to action, and the result was that the British abandoned the Chesapeake to the French squadron. Thus cut off from supplies, lord Cornwallis was surrounded by the French and American forces under the command of General Washington, and on the 19th of October he surrendered himself and his army prisoners of war; the prisoners amounted to more than 6000.

On the 5th of May 1782 Sir Guy Carleton arrived at New-York, and superseded Sir Henry Clinton in command. The capture of Cornwallis, excepting some desultory skirmishes, terminated the war; and Sir Guy made proffers of peace on the part of his government. General Washington and the Congress acted with great circumspection in the business, being apprehensive of some foul play. Nege-

ciations, however, being continued, the provisional articles of peace were signed at Paris on the 30th of November, in which Great Britain acknowledged the freedom, sovereignty, and independence of the States. They were acknowledged in the same character by France on the 31st January, 1778; by Holland on the 19th of April, 1782; by Sweden on the 5th of February, 1783; by Denmark on the 25th of February, by Spain in March, by Russia in July of the same year; and by Prussia in 1785. In men the United States are supposed to have lost by the war about 70,000. In the Jersey prison-ship alone 11,000 souls are believed to have perished. On the 24th of March, 1784, the peace with America was ratified.

General Washington, having successfully conducted his country to independence, aided by the great men of the time, repaired to Annapolis, and on the 23d of December, 1783, in the Senate-room of the State-House, resigned his commission into the hands of the President of Congress. This commission is preserved in the Department of State at Washington. His accounts were all fairly rendered in at the public treasury, and he enjoys the reputation of economy and probity in his disbursements, as well as of purity of ambition.

It may be truly asserted that no people in the world ever endured more privations, suffered more hardships, or exhibited more perseverance, in any cause, than the Americans did in this contest for freedom. The following table shews at one view the number of troops employed each year during the war, nominal and effective, together with the annual payments for supporting them, in specie value:

Y

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Nominal.</i>	<i>Effective.</i>	<i>Pay.</i>
1775	27,443	15,000	} \$20,064,666
1776	46,891	25,000	
1777	34,820	26,000	24,986,646
1778	32,899	19,000	24,289,438
1779	27,699	18,000	10,794,620
1780	21,015	19,000	3,000,000
1781	13,292	10,000	1,942,465
1782	14,256	11,000	3,632,745
1783	13,476	12,000	3,226,583
1784			548,525

	Total	92,485,688
Add to this the debt incurred of about		42,708,009

And we have an aggregate specie sum
of - - - - - \$135,193,697

To the preceding the militia of each State may be added. On an average they amounted to about half as many as the regulars: their pay was included in the list of expenses which were reduced in funding the public debt. In addition to this expense large bounties were given by the States in lands and money, and depreciation was made good. The annexed statement exhibits the amount paid by the States respectively.

New-Hampshire,	- - - - -	\$ 4,278,015
Massachusetts,	- - - - -	17,964,613
Rhode-Island,	- - - - -	3,782,074
Connecticut,	- - - - -	9,285,737
New-York,	- - - - -	7,179,982
New-Jersey,	- - - - -	5,342,770
Pennsylvania,	- - - - -	14,137,076

Carried forward, \$ 61,970,267

	<i>Brought forward,</i>	\$ 61,970,267
Delaware,	- - - - -	839,319
Maryland,	- - - - -	7,568,145
Virginia,	- - - - -	19,085,981
North-Carolina,	- - - - -	10,427,586
South-Carolina,	- - - - -	11,523,299
Georgia,	- - - - -	2,993,800

Total. *Dollars,* 114,408,397

From these particulars, a tolerably accurate idea may be formed of the expenses of the war for independence.

After the war, the articles of confederation and perpetual union were found to be inadequate to all the objects of a permanent government; and the question having been agitated among the most enlightened men of the nation, (in consequence of a proposition first made by James Madison in 1785) a convention of delegates chosen by each state met at Philadelphia in the summer of 1787; where a new constitution of government was suggested, and was finally adopted. This constitution, with subsequent amendments, is the one under which we have now the happiness to live. It secures to the people every thing that is desirable in human society. Liberty of conscience, freedom of speech and of the press, and the trial by jury, are guarantied by it. All legislative power is vested in Congress, which consists of a Senate and House of Representatives: The Senate is composed of two members from each state, each of whom is entitled to hold his seat for six years; but by a classification at the first institution of this body, one third of the members go out every two years, so that it is renewed every six years, although as a body it is never defunct. Each Senator is entitled to one vote, must be thirty years old, have been nine years a citizen of the United

States, and must be an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen when elected. The Vice-President of the United States is President of the Senate, but has no vote except on an equal division. The Senate may choose a Vice-President *pro tempore* in case of the absence or death of the Vice-President, or of his serving as President of the United States; as also its Secretary and other necessary officers. The Senate have the sole power of trying impeachments, and likewise a power of approving or rejecting treaties and nominations to certain offices made by the President. The House of Representatives consists of members chosen every two years, agreeably to a ratio of numbers calculated upon a census of population taken at the end of every ten years. No person can be a Representative unless he is twenty-five years of age, been seven years a citizen of the United States, and is an inhabitant of the State for which he is elected at the time of election. The number of Representatives cannot exceed one for every thirty thousand. Each member of the House has a vote. This body chooses its Speaker, Clerk, and subordinate officers, has the exclusive power of originating money bills, and several other peculiar powers. Congress is authorized to lay and collect taxes, raise and support armies and a navy, declare war, regulate commerce, coin money, &c. Every bill, before it becomes a law, must be presented to the President of the United States for signature: if he approves, he signs it; if he disapproves of it, he sends it back with his objections: and unless it is repassed by two-thirds of both houses of Congress it does not become a law: but the President must return it within ten days, (Sundays excepted,) otherwise it becomes a law. The Senators and Representatives have a pecuniary *per diem* allowance for their services. The Presi-

dent of the United States is the chief executive officer of the government, and he is elected, as well as the Vice-President, for four years, by electors chosen by the people or legislatures of the states. The number of these electors is, for each state, equal to the number of Representatives and Senators of the state in Congress. The subjoined table exhibits the number to which each state has been entitled for the past ten years, the ratio of representation being 35,000 :

	<i>No. of Representatives.</i>	<i>No. of Electors.</i>
New-York,	27	29
Virginia,	23	25
Pennsylvania,	23	25
Massachusetts,	20	22
North-Carolina,	13	15
Kentucky,	10	12
Maryland	9	11
South-Carolina,	9	11
Connecticut,	7	9
New Hampshire,	6	8
Vermont,	6	8
New-Jersey,	6	8
Tennessee,	6	8
Georgia,	6	8
Ohio,	6	8
Rhode-Island,	2	4
Delaware,	2	4
Louisiana,	1	3
Indiana,	1	3
Illinois,	1	3
Mississippi,	1	3
Alabama,	1	3
	<hr/> 186	<hr/> 230
Additional for Maine,	-	- 2
		<hr/> 232

The electors are obliged to designate the person voted for as President or Vice-President, and the person having a majority of the whole number of votes for either station is duly entitled to the office. The votes are transmitted to the President of the Senate, who opens them in the presence of the members of both houses of Congress, and they are counted. If there is no choice by the electors, the House of Representatives, voting by states, are to choose the President from the three candidates having the highest number of votes. If there be no choice of Vice-President by the electors, then the Senate choose him from the two candidates having the highest number on the lists. In case of the death, resignation, or inability, of the President to discharge the functions of his post, the Vice-President is to act as President; and in case of the death, &c. of both these officers, Congress may by law declare who shall discharge the duties of the station. The Vice President has an annual salary of 5000 dollars. The President is commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the service of the United States. His annual salary is 25,000 dollars; and he is impeachable, and may be removed for misconduct. Whenever he is tried the chief justice must preside. George Washington was the first President of the United States, and was inaugurated the 30th of April, 1789; he was re-elected on the 4th of March 1793: On the 4th of March 1797 he relinquished the office, and died, universally admired and regretted, on the 14th of December 1799. In March 1797 John Adams was chosen President: In 1801 Thomas Jefferson was elected to the same office, and was re-chosen in 1805: He voluntarily retired in 1809, when James

Madison succeeded him. Mr. Madison retired in 1817, and was succeeded by James Monroe, who is the actual President. There are four principal departments under the President, to wit: the Department of State, of the Treasury, of War, and of the Navy, over each of which there is a Secretary; who, together with the Attorney General of the United States, form a council of consultation for the President, and, by this means, he is enabled to bring to his aid the best abilities of the nation. The Secretary of State is the organ of diplomatic intercourse with foreign nations, and of correspondence, in relation to his Department, with the Governors of States, Territories, &c. The Secretary of the Treasury superintends the collection of the revenue, which arises from duties on tonnage, on imported goods, postage of letters, and the sales of public lands. In ordinary years the yearly revenue amounts to about 14,000,000 of dollars: All disbursements of public money are made and adjusted at the Treasury Department. The Secretary of War superintends the affairs of the army, which, in time of peace, consists of a small number of regular troops: These, however, are augmented in time of war: But the chief reliance for defence is on the militia, which, according to the census of 1810, may be reckoned at 1,119,914. Ordinarily the military establishment costs the United States nearly 4,000,000 of dollars per annum. The Secretary of the Navy has the care of our infantine marine, which, including ships of the line, frigates, &c. amounts to about 50 vessels of war, rating from 1 to 106 guns, and carrying, in the aggregate, about 1500 guns; besides which there are several bomb-ketches and gun boats. The common annual expense of the Navy Department has been about 3,000,000 of dollars. The

Attorney-General is the principal law-officer of the government. The United States established a mint in 1792. The gold coins are eagles, half eagles, and quarter eagles; the silver coins are dollars, half dollars, quarter dollars, dimes, and half dimes; the copper coins, are cents and half cents. Dollars, cents and mills, are the denominations generally used in computation; but the latter are merely nominal. The post office is under the direction of a postmaster general and two assistants. All these departments and institutions are under the general observance of the President.

The Judicial power of the government is vested in certain courts, of which there are three kinds: A supreme court, circuit courts, and district courts. The constitution establishes the first, and the two last have been instituted by Congress. The Supreme court consists of a chief justice and six associate judges, and the Attorney-General of the United States is the public prosecutor before it. The circuit court consists of a Judge of the Supreme court and the district judge of the State; and for this purpose the United States are divided into circuits and districts. The circuit courts sit twice a year in each district composing the circuit, and the judge must reside in one of them. The district court is held by the judge of the district, whose authority is confined to it. A district attorney is the public prosecutor before the circuit and district courts; and there is a marshal appointed for each district, who exercises the powers of a Sheriff.

Each state has a government independently of this general government, sovereign in every particular except as to those national interests of which the federal constitution takes cognizance. The government of the several States, however varying in

form, are essentially republican, and calculated to promote the happiness of the people.

The United States, now twenty-three in number, have Territories, which, as they increase in population, are allowed a more liberal frame of government until they become States, to which privilege they are admitted when they contain 60,000 inhabitants. The President, with the approbation of the Senate, appoints the Governors, Secretaries, and other officers of the Territories, and they are paid out of the national treasury. The District of Columbia is under the exclusive jurisdiction of the general government; and, being the seat of its deliberations, it is probable it will remain so. Washington City is the capital of the whole United States.

The population of the United States and their Territories, according to the census of 1810, amounts to 7,239,903 souls, of which the following is an accurate table :

STATES.

Maine and Massachusetts,	-	-	700,745
New-Hampshire,	-	-	214,460
Vermont,	-	-	217,895
Rhode-Island,	-	-	76,931
Connecticut,	-	-	261,942
New-York,	-	-	959,049
New-Jersey,	-	-	245,562
Pennsylvania,	-	-	810,091
Delaware,	-	-	72,674
Maryland,	-	-	380,546
Virginia,	-	-	974,622
Kentucky,	-	-	406,511
North-Carolina,	-	-	555,500
Tennessee,	-	-	261,727
South-Carolina,	-	-	415,115
Georgia,	-	-	252,433

Ohio,	- - - - -	230,760
TERRITORIES—in 1810.		
Orleans,	- - - - -	76,556
Mississippi,	- - - - -	40,352
Indiana,	- - - - -	24,520
Louisiana,	- - - - -	20,845
Illinois,	- - - - -	12,282
Michigan,	- - - - -	4,762
<i>District of Columbia,</i>	- - - - -	24,023
Total		7,239,908

The population of the United States and Territories increased, from 1800 to 1810, nearly 2,000,000. And manufactures, of almost every description, have made considerable progress.

Since the revolutionary conflict, the United States have been engaged in several Indian wars, in a war with France, one with Tripoli, and a war declared against Great Britain in 1812, which terminated in 1815, with great increase of military and naval renown to the Americans. In every one of these national contests they have had the advantage.

The SPANISH POSSESSIONS of America, before the prevailing revolution, which has so much shattered that monarchy, consisted, in the *North*, of New Mexico, part of the Floridas, of California, and Old Mexico. The origin of the power of Spain in that section of the country is singular. Velasquez, a governor of Cuba, desirous of rendering his administration remarkable, undertook a small expedition of discovery, which he confided to Fernando Cortes. This commander set out in 1519, at the head of about 600 men, a few horse, and some pieces of artillery. He coasted along the peninsula of Yucatan, landed at Tabasco, and founded the colony of Vera-Cruz. Here he threw off the authority

of Velasquez, and having gained intelligence of the riches and splendor of Mexico, marched thither, subduing or conciliating the nations of Indians in his way. Arriving at Mexico he was received as a friend; but in the true spirit of an invader he seized the emperor Montezuma in his palace, kept him close prisoner, and after three years of conflicts, in which he had to combat with a Spanish force sent by Velasquez to arrest him, he succeeded in subjugating this fine country. Cortes, when he set out from Vera Cruz upon this enterprize, burnt his fleet. Robertson has collected, in a very interesting narrative, the principal events of this extraordinary conquest. In *South America* the Spaniards own Terra-Firma, Peru, Chili, and Paraguay. Of these provinces the history of Peru is the most engaging.

It was the domain of a race of magnificent princes entitled *Incas*. The people were wealthy, industrious, and considerably advanced in the arts of civilization: In this respect they are thought to have exceeded the Mexicans, who were tolerably polished. These people had the misfortune, in the year 1531, to be the object of an expedition undertaken by Francis Pizarro, Diego Almagro, and a priest. These conquerors had a very small military force; but the Peruvians were divided by a contest between two brothers for the throne. The Spaniards interfered and finally reduced the country under their own yoke, after committing the greatest cruelties, quarrelling among themselves, and plundering the natives. The events of this achievement are likewise detailed by Robertson.

The direction of the provinces of Spanish America has been heretofore committed to the *council of the Indies*. And the king's representative in each province was either a vice-roy or a captain general.

As this part of the world is at present in a state of revolution, in which the old authority trembles and new governments are not yet firmly established, it would be improper to pursue their history further at this time.

The Baron Humboldt, who has furnished the latest and most authentic description of some of the principal Spanish possessions in America, reckons the population of Mexico alone, at about 6,500,000. The policy of the Spaniards has always been to exclude foreigners and free trade from their colonies.

The PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS in South-America consist of Brazil and Guiana. The former was discovered in the year 1500, by Pedro Alvarez Cabral, on a voyage to the East-Indies. It is a very rich province, and gives the title of prince of Brazil to the heir apparent to the Portuguese crown. This country has become interesting of late from the emigration of the royal family thither from Lisbon. We have no accurate knowledge of the population, but there are supposed to be nearly as many blacks as whites. Brazil abounds in fine bays and harbors, furnishes many articles for commerce, such as excellent sugar, drugs, and Brazil wood; and produces gold and diamonds.

In all the Spanish and Portuguese possessions in America, the Roman Catholic Religion is the established worship.

In the interior of South America a large portion of the country remains almost unexplored. It is called Amazonia. This is also the case with the extremity of that part of the continent called Patagonia, or the Magellanic region, of which, as well as of the body of land between the Straits of Le Maire

and those of Magellan, called Terra del Fuego, we, in truth, have very little certain knowledge.

I do not think it necessary, in this brief general historical view, to enter into a description of those islands which lie in the sea between East Florida and the river Oronoco. Cuba, the chief of them, is at present in the hands of the Spaniards, daily liable to revolution, and altogether at the mercy of the English; who, by means of their formidable navy, hold the principal sway in these islands. St. Domingo or Hayti, the next in size and importance, is at this time under the dominion of the Blacks, who, as rulers, are represented even as more severe task-masters to their African brethren than the whites. The different European nations that have planted colonies, have introduced their own peculiar institutions; so that a traveller who should pass from one island to another, and make the whole circuit, would meet with all the variety of laws, customs and manners, that are to be found in Europe, together with many of native growth.

Before I conclude, it may not be amiss to mention that by the purchase of Louisiana in the year 1803, the United States obtained the customary title to a vast body of land and considerable population on the western banks of the Mississippi. The country thus acquired was, in part, at first divided into two Territories, that is to say, the Territory of Orleans and the Territory of Louisiana, which were governed agreeably to the Ordinances of Congress. In 1812, the population of Orleans being more than 60,000 souls, that Territory was erected into a State. There exists some dispute concerning the boundaries of Louisiana as it was originally purchased from the French, and the United States have taken measures to secure their rights in that particular.

Z

Since the country was bought, an exploring party, conducted by Messrs. Lewis and Clarke, travelled across the continent to the shores of the Pacific Ocean. The views which that enterprize opened for posterity are truly interesting.

With respect to the Indians who reside in and adjacent to the United States, it has been the policy of the American government to inculcate among them sentiments of concord, and to propagate the arts of civilization. The effort has, in some degree, succeeded; but, in many cases, the friendly endeavors of the United States have been attended with no beneficial effects whatever.

C.

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